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Theatres...Conversazioni...Amusements at Naples...Character and Manners.

I HAVE already regaled you with the ruins on one side of Naples, and before I present you those on the other, I will introduce you to the amusements and manners of the Neapolitans.

There are four theatres, three of which are generally open at the same time. The royal theatre, contiguous to the palace of the king, is just closed, at the commencement of Lent. The theatre itself is the largest in Europe. The fronts of the boxes were formerly covered with mirrors, which, when the theatre was illuminated, produced the most brilliant effect. The boxes are now painted, but each one has in the inside one or two small mirrors, in front of which candles are lighted. The theatre, except on particular occasions, is very obscure; it is impossible to distinguish any countenance in the distant boxes; there are no lights, except on the stage. Those who hire the boxes, which is generally done by the season, light their own boxes if they choose; this is but rarely done, so that, excepting half a dozen scattered boxes with four or five wax lights, the body of the theatre is in obscurity. I have been only twice at this theatre. The performances were a serious opera, followed by a ballet, neither of which could be called excellent. The dancing did not rise above mediocrity, and the dancers appeared to be more anxious to exhibit feats of strength, than those graceful, characteristick movements, which form the excellence of this art. In the musick also I was disappointed; the orchestra was mean, and there was no singer of great talent. There are three other theatres, at one of which comedy and tragedy are occasionally played. There are one or two actors and one actress possessed of considerable merit, but their action and gestures were violent and exaggerated. One of the theatres is devoted to the opera *Buffa*, and in this the Neapolitan singers and composers excel all others. The person that can hear the delightful airs of Cimarosa and Paisiello without emotion and delight, must be fit for "treason, stratagems, and murder." During Lent the theatre *Del Fondo* is opened for performing oratorios. That of Saul has been the only one given this season. Though I have heard it five or six times, my pleasure seems increased at every repetition. There is in this oratorio a quartetto, beginning "*Pietoso Dio*," &c. which I have no hesitation in preferring to every other piece of

musick I have ever heard. Naples formerly boasted of the first singers and most able composers in Europe. The recent misfortunes of this country have driven most of them away. Paisiello is in Paris; Mrs. Billington in England; yet they still possess *Monbelli*, who, though past his prime, is the first *tenor* in Europe. The *Miller* is an admirable comick singer, and they have a promise of a great singer in the *Pinotti*, a young girl of seventeen, who has vast powers of voice, and is already a rival with the first *cantatrices*. If she continues to improve, she will become the best singer in Europe. Their orchestras are all of them mean; indeed the Neapolitans pay but little regard to instrumental musick, and have not patience enough to become great performers. I have seen them make many wry faces in executing some passages of German musick, which delights in difficulties.

There is little variety at these theatres; the same pieces are given for a month together, and the Italians who have heard them very often pay very little attention to the stage. They employ themselves in conversation, excepting the moment when some favourite air is sung, when they are profoundly silent. A stranger may vex himself to no purpose; the recitative and many of the airs are drowned in the talking of the audience.

The boxes are generally hired by the month, and, as no single tickets are sold, strangers have recourse to the pit, in which the seats are very convenient, having a cushion and arms to each; and each seat being separate, they are often hired by the month together, and in that case are locked up, when the occupant is not present. The theatres are opened through the year at the second hour of the night; so that in summer time the performance does not begin till ten o'clock in the evening. This awkward mode of counting time is very perplexing to a stranger, and the inhabitants here know no other. Sunset is, according to them, twenty-four o'clock; from whence they begin one, two, &c. As each day varies a little, their time is perpetually incorrect. It has been my misfortune to make several ridiculous blunders in this way of reckoning time.

The conversazioni are one of the most common amusements of Naples, and those to which a stranger is generally introduced. These are parties given in the evening, though of all others they least deserve the name of *conversations*. There are a few ladies who hold them every evening. Two of these, at the houses of the Dutchess of ——, and the Marchioness ——, are the most respectable, and are the resort of the nobility and respectable strangers. There are others of different grades, so that all ranks have accession to some of these parties. A stranger who should go to a conversazione with an idea to rational conversation, would be wretchedly disappointed. From the highest to the lowest, the chief occupations are cards and intrigue. Different games are played, but there is always one party for *trente un*, and this is the most common game. A person may have their choice of losing five dollars, or five hundred guineas in an evening. It was very disagreeable to see ladies seated at these tables, and intent upon the game: they certainly are never less attractive, than when thus employed. As for the Neapolitans in general, they are the coolest gamblers I

have ever seen. Losing or winning, their countenance undergoes no alteration. In this they have a great advantage over the imprudent stranger, who suffers himself to be heated with his game. Not long since, an English officer, who had obtained a furlough, came to Naples to pass a few months, and had devoted a thousand guineas for his expenses. A few evenings after his arrival, being introduced at one of the principal conversazioni, he unluckily approached the table of trente un ; he lost only a hundred guineas, because it was all he had about him ; but in the course of two or three evenings, in regaining this, he lost the rest, and employed the last fifty in rejoining his regiment.

The company generally retire about two or three in the morning. No refreshment is given at these parties but iced water ; and these conversazioni comprize the hospitality of Naples. As every person comes attended with one or more servants, they are playing for copper in the antichamber while their masters in the saloon are playing for gold. This rage for gaming appears to be universal. Every rank is engaged in it, and I have never been in any house at Naples, except the French ambassador's, where cards have not been introduced, and formed the principal amusement.

Hospitality is not a virtue of the Neapolitans. A stranger very rarely partakes of a dinner or supper in one of their houses. They are very temperate, and their repasts of the frugal kind. Fish of various kinds, which are caught in the bay, is the food they esteem the most luxurious. They have a singular prejudice against all kinds of tame water fowl ; and ducks and geese, which are favourite food with other nations, are seldom placed on their tables. Their most common food is maccaroni, and many thousands in this city live on this food alone. A dish of boiled maccaroni with a little cheese grated over it, forms the breakfast, dinner, and supper of the mass of the people, and in one shape or another, they always form a part of a Neapolitan repast. The frugality of their tables is perhaps the reason, why strangers are excluded from them, whose sturdy appetites would be indignant at the insipidity of maccaroni. Excess in drinking is a vice almost unknown, and toasts are never given. The common hour of dining is at two o'clock, the hottest hour of the day : the dinner is soon finished, and then, overcome with lassitude, they strip themselves to the skin, and lay down. After the heat of the day is past, and the approach of evening invites them to partake of its refreshing coolness they rise and drive in their carriages to the Corso, which extends from the city toPausilipo ; here they turn and return for an hour or two, criticise each other, rehearse the anecdote of the day, and when the last purple ray has faded from the summit of Vesuvius, and the distant shores of the bay are enveloped in obscurity, they return to the city, and stopping their carriages at the ice houses, they regale themselves with ices in their carriages. This is with them a favourite luxury, and in no part of the world are they so well made, as at Naples.

After going home and adjusting their dress, they go to the theatre, which is generally over before midnight, and then they go to a conversazione, or, in the heat of summer, to a supper party at Pausilipo, and an excursion on the bay. At the approach of morn-

ing they retire to repose from their fatigue, and to prepare themselves for the next day. I have been so well initiated into this regular mode of life, that I seldom see my bed before three or four o'clock in the morning, the hour when the industrious farmer in America has already begun his daily labour.

The Neapolitan men are of superiour stature to most other nations; it is rare in any country to see so many large men as are in this city. Some of them are celebrated for their personal strength: but their indolent manners and inactive appearance make them appear incapable of strong exertions. They are the slaves of voluptuousness, and extremely serious. Gaiety requires a degree of elasticity, both physical and moral, which they never possess, or which the climate destroys. The vivacity, the sprightly activity of a Frenchman forms the most striking contrast, with the grave indolence of the Neapolitans.

The appearance of the women is inferiour to that of the men. The climate soon matures and soon destroys their charms. A fine complexion is seldom seen, and their excessive indolence encourages corpulency, to which they are most of them subject. Yet one feature they have in perfection; they have universally fine eyes, sparkling, penetrating, and full of expression. They never walk; but when they go out it is always in a carriage. The publick promenade, called the villa, is a very pleasing one, yet it is little frequented. There are not more than a dozen ladies who walk in it, and only four or five of these often use this exercise. As they are never seen, except in a carriage, or sitting in a room, pains are bestowed only on the bust, and their head and shoulders are generally arranged with care and taste, whilst the rest of the dress is awkward and slovenly; like the graceful neck and snowy breast of the swan, which appears so beautiful when he is swimming on the water, but which is wholly destroyed by his clumsy gait in walking. The Neapolitan ladies should not be seen walking, as their waddling gait and uncouth dress are always ridiculous, and sometimes disgusting. Rouge is little used. They are affable to strangers, and appear sometimes to prefer their society to that of their own countrymen. Most travellers have attributed to the sex in this country a strong disposition for amorous gallantry and intrigue; and Dupaty says, that they deceive with singular adroitness. What all concur in, is generally true; I have no reason to contradict their opinions.

Both sexes are generally very slovenly, and the people are very dirty. They have many fine fountains, and might easily have hot and cold baths in every part of the city; but they appear to have an antipathy to water, and there are only three months in the year that they bathe; when temporary sheds are erected upon the borders of the bay for this purpose. It is singular, that the luxury of warm baths, so natural to an effeminate people, and which was so common under the ancient Romans, that even the meanest people made use of them, should be wholly unknown at Naples, when they might be so easily obtained, and would be so important both to their health and pleasure.

The little fidelity that is found in matrimonial life, and of course the corrupt state of society, must be attributed to the manner in which marriages are formed. Con-

versing on this subject with a lady, whose own conduct was irreproachable, she asked me how it was possible, that it could be otherwise, when the marriages were formed by the parents, directed by motives of interest and ambition, and in which the parties themselves were never consulted! A young girl is taken from a convent, and espoused to a man, who may be wholly disgusting to her: she complains for some time of her destiny; the seduction and example of society soon persuade her to meliorate it. The husband, who has taken his wife from convenience, sees her lover with as much indifference as the rest of society, and derives his consolation in making the injury mutual.

After having dwelt on the defect of hospitality, and the insipid, degraded state of society in this great city, I should be unjust, if I did not inform you, that several causes have contributed to make it peculiarly bad at the present moment. The revolution produced the most fatal effects; some of the best characters fell sacrifices to the rage of different parties, and many noble families were constrained by their political opinions to abandon their country. Those, who remained, were plundered of their property, and their estates were ruined. The king is at Palermo, where he holds his court. The queen is at Vienna, and a part of the court is with her. The hereditary prince is the only one of the royal family now at Naples, except a little prince, of six years old, and the courtiers know too well the danger of paying much attention to him. Sir William Hamilton, whose hospitable house was frequented by the best society, is no longer here, and the French influence is so predominant, that the present English minister lives in rather a retired manner. At the house of Mr. Alguier, the French ambassador, there are no Neapolitans nor cards admitted, and this is the only house, where I have seen that kind of society, and enjoyed that rational, liberal conversation, which are found in the circles of some other countries.

REMARKER, *No.* 10.

Rura mihi et rigui placeant in vallibus amnes;
Flumina amem silvasque inglorius. VIRG. Geor. 2.

Oh may I yet, by fame forgotten, dwell
By gushing fount, wild wood, and shadowy dell. SOTHEBY.

THE love of nature is a passion of the soul, pure and intellectual. Its energy is sublime, without the violence of animal impulse, and its enjoyment fine and exquisite, without the riot and confusion of mental and physical indulgence. It is purely spiritual, because it is produced by the perceptions of the mind, of what is abstractly beautiful, and it is rapturous in that sympathy, which rebounds from the coincidence of natural and ideal beauty. This sympathy, however, is not merely confined to such a harmony of beauties; it mingles also with what is tranquil in nature, and it extends with what is sublime. The softness of the landscape at sun-setting breathes itself to the bosom with the tenderest melancholy, and the stillness of

the lake under moonlight soothes the soul into sweetest repose. In the terror of the mighty evolutions of nature, man is also prepared for ruin. His genius bounds at the approach of the whirlwind ; it rushes with the swiftness of its fury, and tracks it through its rustling path to the boundaries of the heavens. It is transcendent amid the horrours of the tempest, and, as the lightning breaks from the thunder cloud, it leaps with sublimity, and moves on its blazing line into the profundity of darkness.

Man thus appears to hold an intimate connexion, and grand alliance with nature. But the enjoyment of this blessing seems negative by habitual experience, though the consciousness of it is necessarily deduced from the supremacy of his power, and the sublimity of his position over all surrounding existence. Still, however, must he remain contented with the certainty of its possession, though it be in some measure unaccountable to himself. He must learn to satisfy his mind with the resemblances of facts, on subjects too subtle for their operation, and he must not sicken at the disappointment of defining, what is infinite. The brightness of beauty should enlighten the mistiness of its existence, and that sublimity which is not instantaneous and universal, may be produced by elevation of thought and combination of magnitudes. His mind may, for a moment, stand and gaze on the very borders of its own perfection ; but before it can even catch a glimpse of what rolls beyond, it perceives light and vision blended, and lost in the deep void of boundless space.

There is, moreover, the sweetest union of the pleasures of sense and intellect in the delight of nature. Through this bright medium the vision of fancy has an infinite series of delightful views, sometimes breaking into the bright opening of rapture, and sometimes lengthening and expanding into the luxuriant extent of enjoyment. Every pleasurable impulse of sense urges incipient action into the execution of delight ; and every great passion riots in indulgence, more rapturous by progression, and more vacant by excess ; not forbidden by reason, nor tainted by disgust. He, who thus gives himself up to nature, is in the brightness and purity of his existence. His mind philosophizes with itself in the loneliness of meditation, and his passions receive ordinance from the solemn convention of philosophy and religion.

Human nature, thus ennobled with powers so sublime, and softened with sensibilities so delicate, each qualified with capacities of enjoyment, extensive as the subjects are exhaustless, must indeed be inveterate against its own happiness by renouncing the experience of it. We too niggardly encroach on the rights of intellect in the vain enterprize of meliorating that, which is already essentially below the standard of human dignity. Few are even aware of the freedom and range of nature, for half mankind come into the world with manacles and fetters. With the smile of slaves, they are pleased and exult with the freedom of breath, and the liberty of life. They sicken and rot within the impalement of a city, without once brightening their eye with a gleam of pure light, or refreshing their lungs with the balmy inhalations of pure expanse. There is a feebleness about them, which is not

the relaxation of strength, and a languor, which is not the repose of enjoyment. At death their eye shuts blankly on the walls of their prison, while the vision of him, who has communed with nature, slowly fades with the melancholy dimness of things, and vanishes with their departure.

How truly inglorious is existence, thus drawn out by the continual motives of business, and fretted away by the vain anxieties of city life. How vacant the mind, without the intelligence of nature, and how spiritless the brain, without the thrills of her emotions. He, who is thus kennelled in the city, prefers the bustle of noisy nothingness to the soothing serenity of country life ; an atmosphere darkened with the dust of drudgery and labour to the blue expanse, over the fresh landscape ; the jargon of brokers, and the brawlings and heavings of " fat and greasy citizens" to the sound of the spring bird at evening, or the broken song of the peasant on his door-stone. To all the exquisite niceties and delicacies of cultured product, even his senses are blunt. He had rather sit, of a dog-day, with four and twenty trenchermen, " big and burly," at the head of a table, whose loaded extent presents the perspective of a market place, than to retire to the cool cell in the grove, to regale himself amid the freshness of fruit, and the raciness of vegetables.

On the contrary, how pleasantly and how naturally flows the life of him, who breathes it in the cool shades of silent retirement, his soul expanding with the pure sentiments, which rural imagery inspires ; who loves to stretch himself, at noon day, in the deep shade of the mountain brow, and follow the huge shadow of the dark cloud, as it sails over the plain, deepening the luxuriance of the vallies, and reflecting bright and glaring light on the edges of cliffs and precipices ; or in the stillness of a summer's evening, aside the old oak that sighs in the night breeze, to catch the bright forms of departed friends in the white clouds, which wave over the moon.

The constant action of thought in retirement, adds another charm to it. The mind here is not left merely to its own operation, reasoning on subjects of its own suggestion, without the standard of perceptible truth for the conclusion of such abstractions. But it has the constant presentation of the sublime experiment of universal cause and effect, free from the anxieties of chance, and unincumbered with the ponderous mass of human follies, prejudices, and absurdities. Its acquisition is the wisdom of nature, and its truth is that certainty of conclusion, which is deduced from determinate causes, invariably efficient of consequential effects.

There is yet another charm in this retreat from the town, and the throng, which is beyond even the fascination of poetry. We here feel, that description is only imitative of nature, and we turn from the transcription, however charming and exact, to the raptures of the original. We are no longer content with the ideal sympathy of visionary existence, but we extend all the pleasures of fiction into the emotions of sensible truth. In the presence of nature, even the minuteness and exactitude of Cowper is indiscriminate and unsatisfactory ; the mellow luxuriance of Thomson barren and wasteful. In the bright expanse, which surrounds her, even

the sublime and transcendent genius of Milton flutters with dark and heavy wings, near the earth, but faintly tinged with the celestial light, and rests on objects blasted or deformed. Let him then, whose soul is pure and holy with the love of nature, take his position in the midst of creation, and commence the mighty work of the eternal perfection of thought.

On Thursday, the 12th of this month, the Hon. JOHN Q. ADAMS, was inaugurated as the first Boylston Professor of Rhetorick and Oratory at Harvard University. We have requested a copy of his inaugural Oration delivered on that occasion, with a belief, that its perusal would afford high gratification to our readers. For his prompt compliance with our request, we beg leave to tender him our most grateful acknowledgements.

AN INAUGURAL ORATION.

BY HON. J. Q. ADAMS.

IT is the fortune of some opinions, as well as of some individual characters, to have been, during a long succession of ages, subjects of continual controversy among mankind. In forming an estimate of the moral or intellectual merits of many a person, whose name is recorded in the volumes of history, their virtues and vices are so nearly balanced, that their station in the ranks of fame has never been precisely assigned, and their reputation, even after death, vibrates upon the hinges of events, with which they have little or no perceptible connexion. Such too has been the destiny of the arts and sciences in general, and of the art of rhetorick in particular. Their advancement and decline have been alternate in the annals of the world. At one period they have been cherished, admired, and cultivated; at another neglected, despised, and oppressed. Like the favourites of princes, they have had their turns of unbounded influence and of excessive degradation. Now the enthusiasm of their votaries has raised them to the pinnacle of greatness; now a turn of the wheel has hurled them prostrate in the dust. Nor have these great and sudden revolutions always resulted from causes seemingly capable of producing such effects. At one period, the barbarian conqueror destroys, at another he adopts, the arts of the vanquished people. The Grecian Muses were led captive and in chains to Rome. Once there, they not only burst asunder their own fetters, but soon mounting the triumphal car, rode with supreme ascendancy over their victors. More than once have the Tartars, after carrying conquest and desolation over the empire of China, been subdued in turn by the arts of the nation, they had enslaved; as if by a wise and equitable retribution of nature the authors of violence were doomed to be overpowered by their own prosperity, and to find in every victory the seeds of defeat.

On the other hand, the arts and sciences, at the hour of their highest exaltation, have been often reproached and insulted by those, on whom they had bestowed their choicest favours, and most cruelly

assaulted by the weapons, which themselves had conferred. At the zenith of modern civilization, the palm of unanswered eloquence was awarded to the writer, who maintained, that the sciences had always promoted rather the misery, than the happiness of mankind; and in the age and nation, which heard the voice of Demosthenes, Socrates has been represented as triumphantly demonstrating, that rhetorick cannot be dignified with the name of an art; that it is but a pernicious practice...the mere counterfeit of justice. This opinion has had its followers from the days of Socrates to our own, and it still remains an inquiry among men, as in the age of Plato and in that of Cicero, whether eloquence is an art, worthy of the cultivation of a wise and virtuous man. To assist us in bringing the mind to a satisfactory result of this inquiry, it is proper to consider the art, as well in its nature, as in its effects; to derive our inferences, not merely from the uses, which have been made of it, but from the purposes, to which it ought to be applied, and the end, which it is destined to answer.

The peculiar and highest characteristick, which distinguishes man from the rest of the animal creation, is *reason*. It is by this attribute, that our species is constituted the great link between the physical and intellectual world. By our passions and appetites we are placed on a level with the herds of of the forest; by our reason we participate in the divine nature itself: formed of clay, and compounded of dust, we are, in the scale of creation, little higher than the clod of the valley; endowed with reason, we are little lower than the angels. It is by the gift of reason, that the human species enjoys the exclusive and inestimable privilege of progressive improvement, and is enabled to avail itself of the advantages of individual discovery. As the necessary adjunct and vehicle of reason, the faculty of speech was also bestowed as an exclusive privilege upon man: not the mere utterance of articulate sounds; not the mere cries of passion, which he has in common with the lower orders of animated nature: but as the conveyance of thought; as the means of rational intercourse with his fellow-creature, and of humble communion with his God. It is by the means of reason, clothed with speech, that the most precious blessings of social life are communicated from man to man, and that supplication, thanksgiving, and praise are addressed to the author of the universe. How justly then, with the great dramatick poet may we exclaim,

" Sure, he that made us with such *large discourse*,
Looking before and after, gave us not
That capability and God-like reason
To rust in us, unus'd."

A faculty thus elevated, given us for so sublime a purpose, and destined to an end so excellent, was not intended by the supreme Creator to be buried in the grave of neglect. As the source of all human improvements it was itself susceptible of improvement by industry and application, by observation and experience. Hence, wherever man has been found in a social state, and wherever he has been sensible of his dependance upon a supreme disposer of events, the value and the power of publick speaking, if not universally acknowledged, has at least been universally felt.

For the truth of these remarks let me appeal to the testimony of history, sacred and profane. We shall find it equally clear and conclusive from the earliest of her records, which have escaped the ravages of time. When the people of God were groaning under the insupportable oppressions of Egyptian bondage, and the Lord of hosts condescended by miraculous interposition, to raise them up a deliverer, the want of *eloquence* was pleaded, by the chosen object of his ministry, as an argument of his incompetency for the high commission, with which he was to be charged. To supply this deficiency, which, even in the communication of more than human powers, Eternal Wisdom had not seen fit to remove, another favoured servant of the Most High was united in the exalted trust of deliverance, and specially appointed, for the purpose of declaring the divine will, to the oppressor and the oppressed: to the monarch of Egypt and the children of Israel. "Is not Aaron the Levite thy brother? I know that he can *speak well*. And he shall be thy spokesman unto the people: and he shall be, even he shall be to thee instead of a mouth, and thou shalt be to him instead of God." It was not sufficient for the beneficent purposes of divine Providence that the shepherd of his flock should be invested with the power of performing signs and wonders to authenticate his mission, and command obedience to his words.... The appropriate instrument to appal the heart of the tyrant upon his throne, and to control the wayward dispositions of the people, was an eloquent speaker; and the importance of the duty is apparent in the distinction, which separated it from all the other transcendent gifts, with which the inspired leader was endowed, and committed it as a special charge to his associate. Nor will it escape your observation, that when the first great object of their joint mission was accomplished, and the sacred system of laws and polity for the emancipated nation was delivered by the voice of heaven from the holy mountain, the same *eloquent speaker* was separated from among the children of Israel, to minister in the priest's office; to bear the iniquity of their holy things; to offer up to God, their creator and preserver, the publick tribute of their social adoration.

In the fables of Greece and Egypt the importance of eloquence is attested by the belief, that the art of publick speaking was of celestial origin, ascribed to the invention of a God, who, from the possession of this faculty, was supposed to be the messenger and interpreter of Olympus. It is attested by the solicitude, with which the art was cultivated at a period of the remotest antiquity. With the first glimpse of historical truth, which bursts from the oriental regions of mythological romance, in that feeble and dubious twilight, which scarcely discerns the distinction between the fictions of pagan superstition and the narrative of real events, a school of rhetorick and oratory, established in the Peloponnesus, dawns upon our view. After the lapse of a thousand years from that time, Pausanias, a Grecian geographer and historian, explicitly asserts, that he had read a treatise upon the art, composed by the founder of this school, a cotemporary and relative of Theseus in the age preceding that of the Trojan war. The poems of Homer abound with still more deci-

sive proofs of the estimation, in which the powers of oratory were held, and of the attention, with which it was honoured as an essential object of instruction in the education of youth.

From that æra, through the long series of Greek and Roman history down to the gloom of universal night, in which the glories of the Roman empire expired, the triumphs and the splendour of eloquence are multiplied and conspicuous. Then it was, that the practice of the art attained a perfection ever since unrivalled, and to which all succeeding times have listened with admiration and despair. At Athens and Rome a town-meeting could scarcely be held, without being destined to immortality; a question of property between individual citizens could scarcely be litigated, without occupying the attention, and engaging the studies of the remotest nations and the most distant posterity.

There is always a certain correspondence and proportion between the estimation in which an art is held, and the effects which it produces. In the flourishing periods of Athens and Rome eloquence was *power*. It was at once the instrument, and the spur to ambition. The talent of publick speaking was the key to the highest dignities; the passport to the supreme dominion of the state. The rod of Hermes was the sceptre of empire: the voice of oratory was the thunder of Jupiter. The most powerful of human passions was enlisted in the cause of eloquence, and eloquence in return was the most effectual auxiliary to the passions. In proportion to the wonders she atchieved, was the eagerness to acquire the faculties of this mighty magician. Oratory was taught as the occupation of a life. The course of instruction commenced with the infant in the cradle and continued to the meridian of manhood. It was made the fundamental object of education, and every other part of instruction for childhood and of discipline for youth was bent to its accommodation. Arts, science, letters, were to be thoroughly studied and investigated, upon the maxim, that an orator must be a man of universal knowledge. Moral duties were inculcated, because none but a good man could be an orator. Wisdom, learning, Virtue herself were estimated by their subserviency to the purposes of eloquence, and the whole duty of man consisted in making himself an accomplished publick speaker.

With the dissolution of Roman liberty, and the decline of Roman taste, the reputation and the excellency of the oratorical art fell alike into decay. Under the despotism of the Cæsars, the end of eloquence was perverted from persuasion to panegyrick, and all her faculties were soon palsied by the touch of corruption, or enervated by the impotence of servitude. Then succeeded the midnight of the monkish ages, when with the other liberal arts she slumbered in the profound darkness of the cloister.

At the revival of letters in modern Europe, eloquence, together with her sister muses awoke, and shook the poppies from her brow. But their torpors still tingled in her veins. In the interval, her voice was gone; her favourite languages were extinct; her organs were no longer attuned to harmony, and her hearers could no longer understand her speech. The discordant jargon of feudal anarchy had banished the musical dialects, in which she had always delighted. The theatres of her former triumphs

were either deserted, or they were filled with the babblers of sophistry and chicane. She shrunk intuitively from the forum, for the last object she remembered to have seen there, was the head of her darling Cicero, planted upon the rostrum. She ascended the tribunals of justice ; there she found her child, Persuasion, manacled and pinioned by the letter of the law ; there she beheld an image of herself, stammering in barbarous Latin, and staggering under the lumber of a thousand volumes. Her heart fainted within her : she lost all confidence in herself : together with her irresistible powers, she lost proportionably the consideration of the world, until, instead of comprizing the whole system of publick education, she found herself excluded from the circle of sciences, and declared an outlaw from the realms of learning. She was not, however, doomed to eternal silence. With the progress of freedom and of liberal science in various parts of modern Europe, she obtained access to mingle in the deliberations of their parliaments. With labour and difficulty she learned their languages, and lent her aid in giving them form and polish. But she has never recovered the graces of her former beauty, nor the energies of her ancient vigour. The immeasurable superiority of ancient over modern oratory is one of the most remarkable circumstances, which offer themselves to the scrutiny of reflecting minds, and it is in the languages, the institutions, and the manners of modern Europe, that the solution of a phenomenon, so extraordinary, must be sought. The assemblies of the people, of the select councils, or of the senate in Athens and Rome were held for the purpose of real deliberation. The fate of measures was not decided before they were proposed. Eloquence produced a powerful effect, not only upon the minds of the hearers, but upon the issue of the deliberation. In the only countries of modern Europe, where the semblance of deliberative assemblies has been preserved, corruption, here in the form of executive influence, there in the guise of party spirit, by introducing a more compendious mode of securing decisions, has crippled the sublimest efforts of oratory, and the votes upon questions of magnitude to the interest of nations are all told, long before the questions themselves are submitted to discussion. Hence those nations, which for ages have gloried in the devotion to literature, science, and the arts, have never been able to exhibit a specimen of deliberative oratory, that can bear a comparison with those, transmitted down to us from antiquity.

Religion indeed has opened one new avenue to the career of eloquence. Amidst the sacrifices of paganism to her three hundred thousand gods, amidst her sagacious and solemn consultations in the entrails of slaughtered brutes, in the flight of birds, and the feeding of fowls, it had never entered her imagination to call upon the pontiff, the haruspex, or the augur, for discourses to the people, upon the nature of their duties to their maker, their fellow-mortals, and themselves. This was an idea too august to be mingled with the absurd and ridiculous, or profligate and barbarous rites of her deplorable superstition. It is an institution for which mankind are indebted to christianity ; introduced by the Founder himself of this divine religion, and in every point of view worthy of its high original.

Its effects have been to soften the tempers and purify the morals of mankind ; not in so high a degree as benevolence could wish, but enough to call forth our strains of warmest gratitude to that good being, who provides us with the means of promoting our own felicity, and gives us power to stand, though leaving us free to fall. Here then is an unbounded and inexhaustible field for eloquence, never explored by the ancient orators, and here alone have the modern Europeans cultivated the art with much success. In vain should we enter the halls of justice, in vain should we listen to the debates of senates for strains of oratory worthy of remembrance, beyond the duration of the occasion which called them forth. The art of embalming thought by oratory, like that of embalming bodies by aromaticks, would have perished but for the exercises of religion. These alone have in the latter ages furnished discourses, which remind us, that eloquence is yet a faculty of the human mind.

Among the causes, which have contributed thus to depress the oratory of modern times, must be numbered the indifference, with which it has been treated, as an article of education. The ancients had fostered an opinion, that this talent was in a more than usual degree the creature of discipline ; and it is one of the maxims, handed down to us as the result of their experience, that men must be born to poetry and bred to eloquence : that the bard is always the child of nature, and the orator always the issue of instruction. This doctrine seems to be not entirely without foundation, but was by them carried in both its parts to an extravagant excess.

The foundations for the oratorical talent, as well as those of the poetical faculty, must be laid in the bounties of nature ; and as the Muse in Homer, impartial in her distribution of good and evil, struck the bard with blindness, when she gave him the powers of song, her Sister not unfrequently, by a like mixture of tenderness and rigour, bestows the blessing of wisdom, while she refuses the readiness of utterance. Without entering however into a disquisition, which would lead me far beyond the limits of this occasion, I may remark, that the modern Europeans have run into the adverse extreme, and appear, during a considerable period, in their system of publick education, to have passed upon eloquence a sentence of proscription. Even when they studied *Rhetorick* as a theory, they neglected *Oratory* as an art ; and while assiduously unfolding to their pupils the bright displays of Greek and Roman eloquence, they never attempted to make them eloquent themselves. Of the prevailing indifference to this department of human learning, no stronger evidence could be offered, than the circumstances under which we are assembled.

Nearly two centuries have elapsed since the foundation of this university. There never existed a people more anxious to bestow upon their children the advantages of education, than our venerable forefathers ; and the name of Harvard is coeval with the first settlement of New-England. Their immediate and remote descendants down to this day have inherited and transmitted the same laudable ardour, and numerous foundations of various kinds attest their attachment to science and literature : yet so far have rhetorick and ora-

tory been from enjoying a pre-eminence in their system of education, that they are now, for the first time, made a separate branch of instruction ; and I stand here to assume the duties of the first instructor. The establishment of an institution for the purpose was reserved to the name of BOYLSTON : a name, which, if publick benefits can impart a title to remembrance, New-England will not easily forget : a name, to the benevolence, publick spirit, and genuine patriotism of which, this university, the neighbouring metropolis, and this whole nation have long had, and still have, many reasons to attest : a name, less distinguished by stations of splendour, than by deeds of virtue ; and better known to this people by blessings enjoyed, than by favours granted : a name in fine, which, if not encircled with the external radiance of popularity, beams, brightly beams, with the inward lustre of beneficence. The institution itself is not of a recent date. One generation of mankind, according to the usual estimates of human life, has gone by, since the donation of Nicholas Boylston constituted the fund for the support of this professorship. The misfortunes which befel the university, unavoidably consequent upon our revolution, and various other causes, have concurred in delaying the execution of his intentions until the present time ; and even now they have the prospect of little more than honest zeal for their accomplishment.

In reflecting upon the nature of the duties I undertake, a consciousness of deficiency for the task of their performance, dwells upon my mind ; which, however ungraciously it may come from my lips, after accepting the appointment with which I am honoured, I yet cannot forbear to expresss. Though the course of my life has led me to witness the practice of this art in various forms, and though its theory has sometimes attracted my attention, yet my acquaintance with both has been of a general nature ; and I can presume neither to a profound investigation of the one, nor an extensive experience of the other. The habits of instruction too, are not familiar to me ; and they constitute an art of little less difficulty and delicacy, than that of oratory itself : yet as the career must necessarily be new by whomsoever it should here be explored, and as it leads to a course of pleasing speculations and studies, I shall rely upon the indulgence of the friends and patrons to this seminary, towards well-meant endeavours, and assume with diffidence the discharge of the functions allotted to the institution. In the theory of the art, and the principles of exposition, novelty will not be expected ; nor is it perhaps to be desired. A subject, which has exhausted the genius of Aristotle, Cicero, and Quintilian, can neither require nor admit much additional illustration. To select, combine, and apply their precepts, is the only duty left for their followers of all succeeding times, and to obtain a perfect familiarity with their instructions, is to arrive at the mastery of the art. For effecting this purpose, the teacher can do little more than second the ardour and assiduity of the scholar. In the generous thirst for useful knowledge, in the honourable emulation of excellence, which distinguishes the students of this university, I trust to find an apology for the deficiencies of the lecturer. The richness of the soil

will compensate for the unskilfulness of the tillage.

Sons of Harvard ! you who are ascending with painful step and persevering toil the eminence of science to prepare yourselves for the various functions and employments of the world before you, it cannot be necessary to urge upon *you* the importance of the art, concerning which I am speaking. Is it the purpose of your future life to minister in the temples of Almighty God, to be the messenger of heaven upon earth, to enlighten with the torch of eternal truth the path of your fellow-mortals to brighter worlds ? remember the reason assigned for the appointment of Aaron to that ministry, which you purpose to assume upon yourself....*I know that he can speak well ;* and, in this testimonial of Omnipotence, receive the injunction of your duty. Is your intention to devote the labours of your maturity to the cause of justice ; to defend the persons, the property, and the fame of your fellow citizens from the open assaults of violence, and the secret encroachments of fraud ? fill the fountains of your eloquence from inexhaustible sources, that their streams, when they shall begin to flow, may themselves prove inexhaustible. Is there among you a youth, whose bosom burns with the fires of honourable ambition ; who aspires to immortalize his name by the extent and importance of his services to his country ; whose visions of futurity glow with the hope of presiding in her councils, of directing her affairs, of appearing to future ages on the rolls of fame, as her ornament and pride ? let him catch from the relicks of ancient oratory those unresisted powers, which mould the mind of man to the will of the speaker, and yield the the guidance of a nation to the dominion of the voice.

Under governments purely republican, where every citizen has a deep interest in the affairs of the nation, and in some form of publick assembly or other, has the means and opportunity of delivering his opinions, and of communicating his sentiments by speech ; where government itself has no arms but those of persuasion ; where prejudice has not acquired an uncontroled ascendency, and faction is yet confined within the barriers of peace, the voice of eloquence will not be heard in vain. March then with firm, with steady, with undeviating step, to the prize of your high calling. Gather fragrance from the whole paradise of science, and learn to distil from your lips all the honies of persuasion. Consecrate, above all, the faculties of your life to the cause of truth, of freedom, and of humanity. So shall your country ever gladden at the sound of your voice, and every talent, added to your accomplishments, become another blessing to mankind.

LIFE OF RICHARD BENTLEY, D. D.

Late Regius Professor of Divinity, and Master of Trinity College, Cambridge, England.

Τιμιωτατα μεν και πρωτα τα περ την ψυχην αγαθα.

PLATO, de Legib. IV.

Continued from page 243.

THE life of a literary man seldom furnishes the variety of incidents which enlivens narration, and renders biography entertaining. However useful the labours of the learned, their lives are generally spent in their libraries, and a catalogue of their works frequently forms their history. This, however, was not wholly the case with Dr. Bentley. His days were not consumed merely in classical studies, or in literary pursuits. Soon after the republication of his answer to Boyle, in the year 1700, he was presented by the Crown to the Mastership of Trinity College, Cambridge, which was then vacant by the death of Dr. Montague. This proof of royal favour rendered it necessary for him to allot a considerable portion of his time to business, and to the affairs of the university. He now resigned the prebendary of Worcester ; but on June 12, 1701, he was collated archdeacon of Ely.

In 1706, Julius Pollux was published, under the direction of Hemsterhuis, who wrote the preface, and the notes to the three last books. This work was begun by Lederlin, and what was left unfinished he completed. Hemsterhuis, at this time, was a very young man, but by this performance he acquired considerable reputation. Bentley was much pleased with so early a display of Greek erudition, and in a letter to him, communicated his corrections of the passages of the comick writers, which Pollux had quoted. The circumstance is related very particularly in Ruhnkenius's *Elogium Tiberii Hemsterhusii.*

"When the learned Lederlin declined completing the edition of Julius Pollux, which was preparing at Amsterdam, application was made to Hemsterhuis, whose erudition was supposed equal to the undertaking. Instigated by the advice of Grevius, he assumed the charge of this work, and his annotations, which, though youthful, were the production of such a youth as Hemsterhuis, immediately turned the eyes of all the learned towards their author.

"At such an age, few writers regard their own productions with contempt. He was sufficiently pleased with the performance. A short time, however, after the publication of the work, he received a letter from Richard Bentley, the Aristarchus of Britain, in which his labours with regard to Pollux were mentioned in terms of high commendation. In the same pacquet also, the doctor inserted his own corrections of the passages, which Pollux had quoted from the comick writers, to illustrate and establish his descriptions.

"Hemsterhuis himself had bestowed great attention on these citations, as he well knew their consequence. When he perused Bentley's animadversions, he perceived that every difficulty was explained, as if by inspiration, and was convinced, that his own time

had been spent in vain, and that his own conjectures were frivolous.

"What effect did this letter produce? Hemsterhuis was so much hurt, and so much displeased with himself, that he determined to abandon wholly the study of Greek literature; and for some months he did not dare to open the works of an author in that language."

Ruhnkenius then bestows very just encomiums upon him, for the candour and openness with which he used to relate this story to his scholars, and in conversation. He thus proceeds:

"Hemsterhuis, however, when reflection succeeded vexation, perceived that he had improperly placed his abilities, young as he was, in competition with those of a veteran critick, who held the highest rank; and was soon reconciled to himself, and to his former studies. So powerful, however, was the effect of Bentley's advice, that he determined not to trust himself in the dangerous paths of conjecture or criticism, until he had stored his mind with a comprehensive knowledge of every various art and science. He chose his counsellor, as the great object of his imitation. He looked up to him with the fondest admiration: placed him continually before his eyes; and preferred him to every other critick. Nor did he conceal his resentment, if, in his presence, the envious carped at the wonderful talents of this great man, at which they could not possibly arrive."

In the year 1709, when Davis published Cicero's *Tusculanæ Quæstiones*, Dr. Bentley added his annotations to the edition. But on account of some reflections which have been represented as not very liberal, when this work was republished, Davis omitted the doctor's remarks. They were, however, again inserted, when the book was reprinted in 1738.

From the Amsterdam press, in 1710, was published Kuster's edition of Aristophanes. Two of the plays were enriched with the annotations of Bentley; which are not very elaborate, but in many instances discover that acumen and penetration, which characterises his critical disquisitions.

During this period, Le Clerc ranked among the first literary characters. He had distinguished himself by publishing editions of some classical writers, particularly Hesiod, with notes and a Latin translation. His theological researches, though he is sometimes too daring, had greatly increased his rising reputation; and his Art of Criticism, written in Latin, had been much commended. His *Epistolæ criticæ*, to some of our bishops, and the active part, which he was supposed to take in some of the foreign journals, had rendered his abilities as an author very generally known in England. In such high estimation, indeed, was he held by lord Hallifax, that he employed his interest with some of the nobility, and men in power, in his favour. His chief wish was, that some considerable church preferment, and even a bishoprick, might be offered to Le Clerc, in order to allure him to come and settle near our metropolis.

The bishops did not approve this design. They all esteemed him for his learning and abilities, but as his principles were known to be not very orthodox, and his opinions very free, they opposed the measure. The opposition reflects great credit on the bench, as, by several articles in his *Bibliotheque*, he had disseminated the poison of free-thinking over

the continent, by his account of several English publications.

While the invitation to Le Clerc was a general subject of conversation, he published the fragments of Menander and Philemon, in one octavo volume, at Amsterdam, 1709.

Soon after, the intention of lord Hallifax was mentioned, at archbishop Tennison's, while Bentley and some other men of learning were present. Le Clerc's title to the proffered honours was examined: his literary character was discussed; among them the late publication of the fragments of the two comick writers was of course included. Bentley asserted immediately, that such an edition was a disgrace to a scholar, and that it was replete with glaring errours.

The company instantly urged the doctor to attack it; but he declined the task, as he had long held a correspondence with Le Clerc. At length, however, the instigations of his friends prevailed, and he told them that he would soon convince the world, that the author of *Ars Critica* did not possess that depth of erudition, which had been ascribed to him by the generality of readers.

Bentley soon completed his design; on account, however, of his former intimacy with Le Clerc, he wished his name to be concealed. He, therefore, styled himself, in the title-page, Philelutherus Lipsiensis; and intrusted the manuscript to Hare, with whom he then lived in habits of the greatest intimacy. By his interest, as he was chaplain general to the army, the book was to be transmitted in the duke of Marlborough's pacquet to Burman, with a note, desiring him to publish it, and giving him liberty to write either a dedication, or a preface, as he felt inclined.

Hare discharged the office, as he supposed, with great secresy and exactness. By some unaccountable blunder, however, the papers were never put into the duke's pacquet; but after they had passed through several hands, a Burgomaster at Amsterdam by accident received the manuscript. He immedietely shewed it to Toland, who was then in Holland. He directly pronounced the notes to be the production of Bentley, and, probably, by his means they were afterwards conveyed entire to Peter Burman, with the direction which consigned them to his care, and recommended to him the office of publisher.

By Burman, accordingly, these remarks were edited, with a long preface, and an address, in Latin verse, to the *manes* of Menander and Philemon. The preface is written in a strain of the most virulent abuse against Le Clerc, who was his bitter enemy. To the remarks of Bentley, it offers some additions: among which a few fragments of Menander and Philemon, which had escaped the researches of the too negligent collector, may be considered as the most important; tho' his crititcal annotations are not destitute of acumen.

Le Clerc undoubtedly merited reprehension. Never, perhaps, was an ancient author published in so careless a manner. Metrical defects, even in the common Iambick measure, which required little sagacity to correct, appear almost in every fragment. Besides these, few pages are wholly free from other errours of different kinds, which display at least unpardonable negligence, and were imputed by Bentley to ignorance.

Bentley's emendations were the production of a mind highly vigorous, and stored with the most exquisite and diversified erudition. His knowledge of the Greek language, and familiar acquaintance

with their forms of speech and with their metres, were displayed with uncommon brilliancy. The reputation which he had acquired by his epistle on Malela, and the dissertation on Phalaris, immediately discovered the author of these corrections. Burman, in his preface, asserted, that there were not above three or four persons in the whole republick of letters, to whom they could be ascribed, and in the foreign journals they were immediately assigned to their real author.

The learned Dawes, in his Miscell. Critic. says, that Bentley, in this performance, has passed over above a hundred of Le Clerc's mistakes, at the same time that he is guilty of as many himself. To this assertion too much credit should not be given; for it is a *mere* assertion. It may be attributed in a great measure to the unfriendly sentiments which Dawes entertained towards the writings of this great critick. These sentiments Burgess, the ingenious editor of his work, has jusly censured, and conjectured, with much probability, that they arose from Dawes's residence at Cambridge, while Bentley's measures, as master of Trinity-College, met with such violent opposition. He, perhaps, did not remain passive in these disputes, as we may conjecture from the eagerness with which he endeavoured, in his learned work, to blast the laurels which had so long adorned the brow of the great Bentley.

Let it not be supposed, however, that this pamphlet is to be considered as a complete examination of all the fragments of Menander and Philemon, or that it is absolutely faultless. Some of its errours have been corrected by our learned countryman Toup, in his notes on Suidas; and by Lambert Bos, a few years after its publication, in his *Animadversiones ad Scriptores quosdam Græcos*. These, however, are but few:

"Apparent rari nantes in gurgite vasto!"

And it should be remembered, that authors seldom agree in conjectural criticism, and that the correction of fragments is very hazardous.

If Bentley had disputed with Le Clerc, about a point which could be determined by universality of knowledge, the palm must have been assigned to the latter. In the general mass of erudition the world has seldom seen Le Clerc's superiour; and those who are acquainted with his works will not easily find an author who has displayed such diversified talents, and written with acknowledged abilities on so many and such a variety of subjects.

For the exposure, however, of Le Clerc's ignorance and negligence, in the present instance, Bentley was conspicuously calculated. At an early period of his tife, he had formed a scheme of publishing a collection of the remains of the Greek poets, which lie scattered through the works of ancient writers. Those who are acquainted with the elegances which several of these fragments contain, and with Bentley's critical acumen, will unite in lamenting that he never executed his design. Besides this circumstance, which brought him ready armed into the field, his enemy was exposed in his weakest quarter. To criticism, indeed, about Hellenisms, and metrical disquisitions, Le Clerc was almost a stranger, while Bentley was uncommonly skilful in these discussions, and far surpassed all his contemporaries.

To be continued.

For the Anthology.

THE importance and utility of arts and science are too obvious to admit of doubt or argument ; but perhaps no truth, so well established, has been so little regarded by the people of this country. The many avenues to riches, which the circumstances of the times have opened, are thronged with an eagerness, that engages every faculty ; and the great end, for which alone wealth is desirable, is absorbed in the pursuit and augmentation of the means. It is true, that to make near approaches to perfection in the arts, especially the imitative ones, is one of the last results of opulence and power ; but whether America has made those advances, which her ability and opportunities have afforded, is a question well worth serious consideration, if she has any ambition to rank with the nations of Europe in any other respect than that of commercial speculation. Her vessels spread their sails over the ocean, visit every port, and bring home treasures from every quarter of the globe ; her cities flourish and increase with unprecedented rapidity, many of their inhabitants have acquired the fortunes of princes, and riches are diffused among the people. The luxuries, first desired by men suddenly possessed of wealth are generally coarse and gaudy ; and will continually become more coarse, sensual, and depraved, unless a taste is excited for refined and elegant pleasures ; unless those arts are more generally honoured and encouraged, whose natural tendency is to raise us above the gratifications of sense, to produce a love of beauty and order, a delicacy of feeling, an enlightened liberality of sentiment, and that high polish of exteriour manners, which, while it charms with its brilliance and soothes with its softness, yet retains the integrity of virtue and the purity of honour.

That many must be employed in mere bodily labour, is requisite to the existence of social beings, and it is as wisely ordered, as it is beneficial and necessary ; yet if those, whom fortune has exempted from toil, neglect to acquire knowledge and cultivate taste, the consequence must be a dull and noxious stagnation of every nobler faculty ; a general prevalence of selfish and barbarous customs : but if the many who now possess not only competence, but affluence, could be induced to believe, that the incessant pursuit of gain was not the sole business of life ; and that some portion of time and money might be usefully employed in acquiring taste and fostering of genius, they might elevate themselves unto a rank of just superiority ; the respect they might claim would be paid with cheerfulness, and they would be looked up to with that veneration, which is due to accomplished minds, superiour talents, and legitimate grandeur : the genial rays of polished life would be reflected and diffused through every subordinate class of society ; the mechanick, the labourer, the hind that clears the forest and first opens the bosom of the earth, would catch the softening gleam of humanity, and when the hours of toil were over, would learn to be satisfied with innocent recreations, rather than seek the inebriety of taverns, or the tumultuous discord of popular meetings.

To advise the cultivation of taste, and the attainment of that discriminating knowledge, which enables

its possessor to estimate justly the merits of an artist and the productions of art, particularly the art of painting, may sound strange to some, who have indulged themselves in fancying, that the people of this country have *a natural genius* for this art; to prove which belief, they will say, that we can go into few houses without seeing pictures, and that some of the first modern painters are natives of America,...a land famous for the production of self-taught geniuses. It is true, that prints and pictures, being considered as part of the furniture of a house, few that can furnish houses, neglect to embellish them in this manner; but the common and motley collections, we generally find, shew plainly, that fashionable decoration is the only object; and that taste is neither consulted in the selection, nor gratified by the exhibition. Of self-taught genius, and the wonders it has performed; the encouragement it has met with, and the recommendation it carries with it, we have heard enough, from those who have never thought on the subject, to sicken every one, who has extended his ideas far enough to conceive the extent of art, who knows how little can be done by one mind towards that degree of excellence, which requires the combined efforts of many, and the progressive experience of ages. "Ars longa, vita brevis," is a sentence we seem to have forgotten, or never to have known; hence that praise has been lavished on those, who have made shift to learn their letters without going to school, which could only have been deserved by the student, far advanced in academical knowledge; hence emulation, instead of being excited to great attempts, and deep researches, has been arrested in the beginning of the course, sat down contented with indiscriminate applause it received for trifles, made no farther advances, and the art itself is even to be begun. This country has indeed given birth to West and Stewart, Copely and Trumbull; names that stand in the first rank of European artists; but these were not self-taught, the shoots of skill and dexterity were engrafted on them in another country, where their natural talents were nourished and carefully raised to maturity: had they continued here, they never would have got beyond the rudiments of their profession, and must have been content with that portion of short-lived praise, which usually falls to the lot of a self-taught genius. These observations are not made to discourage young men of talents who are inclined to exert them in the pursuit of art; but to warn them of the evil consequences, which result from mistaking the voice of common praise, for the commendation of the judicious; to induce them to give some other direction to their abilities; or go where the arts flourish in maturity, where the works of the great masters may be studied, where schools are formed, and genius safely guided in the road to excellence.

The attempts that have been made, and are now making at Philadelphia and New-York, to establish schools of painting, are, in the present state of the country, exceedingly premature; and must inevitably prove futile and nugatory. The ground must be cleared, and opened to the vivifying ray, must be weeded and dressed, the soil made rich by patient industry, before the seeds of delicate flowers can be sown; and then, incessant care, attention, and skill is necessary to perfect the gay parterre, which is to gratify the

smell with fragrance, and the sight with varied beauty : so, before we can form schools of art, it is necessary, by previous cultivation, to prepare the minds of people to receive and nourish the seeds of taste ; then schools may be established on solid foundations, possessed of the means of instruction, and conducted by able professors.

If these few ideas, hastily thrown together, are favourably received by your readers, the subject shall be continued. E. E.

June 20.

SILVA, *No.* 16.

Illic purpureis tecta rosariis
Omnis fragrat humus, calthaque pinguia
Et molles violas et tenues crocos
Fundit fonticulis uda fugacibus.—PRUDENTIUS.

TRANSLATORS.

TRANSLATORS are almost always either too close or too loose. The metaphrast "hunts with his author in couples;" the paraphrast spreads his wings, so boldly, that he leaves his author. Perhaps I am worse than paradoxical, when I assert that, as a translator, Burke would have been close, and Johnson loose. The one would have dilated and attenuated ; the other would have compressed and condensed. Johnson was more like Dryden ; Burke more like Pope. The English Æneid is a monarch, decked in loose, wanton robes ; his air high and majestick ; his sceptre sparkles with gems ; the mild, melting rays of soft indulgent mercy flow from his crown. The English Iliad is a warriour, girded in close and succinct armour ; whose step is firm and manly ; whose sword glitters to the sun ; from whose helmet leap the fierce and scorching beams of stern, relentless justice.

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JOURNALS.

A GENTLEMAN, whom I honour and respect as a patriot and a statesman, whom I love and venerate as a patron and friend, once told me, that no man was ever in the habit of keeping a regular journal of his life, who did not attain to some considerable eminence in society. Gibbon, by keeping a journal, has at least, tacitly confessed, that without it, his learning would have been little better than useless ; a dead, inert, unproductive mass of thoughts, lying in heaps, "corrupting in their fertility;" and now where is the man who will dare to condemn, as a childish, idle amusement, what the example of this *grand monarque* of literature authorizes us to consider as a manly, necessary duty?

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PINDAR AND SECUNDUS.

PINDAR, born at Thebes, and Secundus, a native of the Hague, are two illustrious instances to shew that genius is above the influence of climate. The thick, deadening fogs of Bœotia, the cold, blasting dews of Holland produced no other effect, than to heighten the great conceptions of the former, and to sweeten the tender, soft sentiments of the latter. The kisses of Secundus charm into coldness the angry, and subdue the vindictive to indifference ; they soften to kindness the most indifferent, and melt the coldest into love. The odes of Pindar, who can read without feeling his imagination kindle into enthusiasm?

—

BURNS.

BURNS is one of the few authors, whom I am never too weary or too

idle to read. Why does the Ayrshire bard always charm? To what is it owing, that the oftener I read the *Cotter's Saturday Night*, the more my kindly, gentle affections ripen, and refine. Learning he most certainly wanted; but as Dryden said of "nature's darling child," the immortal bard of Avon, Burns needed not the spectacle of books to read nature. He looked inwards, and he found her there. God had also given him a soul, which the heavy, reluctant clouds of low birth and narrow fortune could not darken.

Cauld blew the bitter-biting north
Upon thy early humble birth,
Yet cheerfully thou glented forth
Amid the storm.

Burns is so different from any of his cotemporaries, that if I were required to point out a poet, who in any two respects resembles him, I should hesitate long, I fear to no purpose. Bruce may perhaps be more tender and delicate; but he moves no laughter; he thrills no horrour; his wit is filtered through too much learning; it trickles meagre and rapid. His sublimity is always debased by some circumstance of meanness. I do not say that Bruce wants genius: far from it; he does not want it. He is full of genius. His poetry glows with the warmest words, and sparkles with the brightest thoughts of a warm, glowing imagination, of a bright, sparkling fancy.

Compared with Burns, Cowper dwindles....I am almost afraid to speak my opinion; the ink hardly moves through my pen; it turns pale and seems to sicken when I say, that compared with Burns, Cowper shrinks into nothing. The Nine may have loved Cowper as well as Burns. Indeed, their affection for the former was at first tenderer, perhaps warmer, than for the latter; but fondness is poorly repaid. Love is sorrily rewarded with esteem or respect. Love, unless it kindles love, flashes, and is gone forever. Fondness, unless it excite fondness, soon deadens into indifference. What were the awkward, ceremonious bows of Cowper, compared to the "feltering, ardent kisses" of Burns? What were a modest, timorous Englishman's professions of regard, compared to the feelings of an open, honest Scotchman, who, in protestations of gratitude, sighed his very soul?

—

BEN JONSON AND COWPER.

In his second Masque of Beauty, the counterpart of his first of Blackness, Ben Jonson introduces and presents Boreas,..." In a robe of russet and white mixt...fuled and bagged, his hair, and beard rough and horride...his wings gray and full of snow and ycicles...and in his hand a leaf-lesse branch, laden with ycicles." From this representation of Boreas, Cowper without doubt caught the leading distinguishing images and circumstances of his beautiful personification of Winter.

Oh Winter, ruler of th' inverted year,
Thy scatter'd hair with sleet like ashes fill'd,
Thy breath congeal'd upon thy lips, thy cheeks
Fring'd with a beard made white with other snows
Than those of age, thy forehead wrapt in clouds,
A leafless branch thy sceptre, and thy throne
A sliding car, indebted to no wheels,
But urged by storms along its slipp'ry way,
I love thee all unlovely as thou seem'st,
And dreaded as thou art! &c.

—

MONITORY POEMS AND PROVERBS OF SOLOMON.

The monitory poems of Phocylides clearly recognizes the immortality of the soul, while the "Proverbs of Solomon" hardly hint at this great doctrine of natu-

ral religion. I mention this fact, because it is curious, and little known. The Bishop of Gloucester is my authority.

—

POPE AND GRAY.

GRAY, in his poem on the Pleasures of Vicissitude, has happily imitated, perhaps he has more than equalled, a fine passage in the second epistle of Pope's Essay on Man.

Love, hope, and joy, fair pleasure's smiling train;
Hate, fear, and grief, the family of pain:
These mix'd with art, and to due bounds confin'd,
Make and maintain the balance of the mind;
The lights and shades, whose well-accorded strife
Gives all the strength and colour of our life.

POPE.

The hues of bliss more brightly glow,
Chastised by sabler tints of woe,
And blended firm with artful strife
The strength and harmony of life.

GRAY.

—

"*Wilt thou break a leaf driven to and fro?*" This touching question of Job came with all its force into my mind, as I was yesterday sauntering through the mall, and what can be more pathetick? A very old man was leaning upon his staff, as if weary. I asked him why, instead of standing in the sun, he did not sit beneath one of the elms. He raised his countenance to answer me: it was pensive, but not gloomy; a faint, melancholy smile gleamed from his eye, and gave his features the expression of tranquil resignation. He told me that the shade recalled his sorrows; I am, said he, alone...But why do I complain? I deserved nothing; I have lost all.—Feeling an interest in the man, I asked him what calamities had stripped him to poverty.—He began to collect his thoughts, and without a single word of complaint, related the events of his life. He had lived seventy years, and not a day ever passed without bringing some new misfortune. His voice, while he was speaking, was, for the most part, calm and even; but when he told me of the death of his wife and only daughter, his utterance was choaked. His limbs are now palsied, his eyes are dim, his ears are thick. But though his senses are leaving him, he is not querulous; his God, he knows, is love. Surely there is another state. Who does not acknowledge, that unrepining patience deserves a reward higher, than earth can give? There is indeed a world, where sorrow and sighing shall flee away, where tears shall be turned into joy.

—

LEVITIES.

IN the province of Gascoigne in France the natives substitute the letters B and V for each other; which occasioned Joseph Scaliger to say of them...Felices populi quibus *bibere* est *vivere*.

We have often heard the anecdote of the boy, who being sent by his master to *h*eat his breakfast, construed the direction into an order to *eat* it, on the authority of the old pedagogues, that "*H was not a letter.*" The lad was not without law on his side. In the case of Shelbury, vs. Bupard. (Cro. Eliz. 172.) in error, it was moved, that the writ of error should abate for a variance between the writ and record, "for that the record was "of lands in Colc*h*ester and the "writ supposeth the lands to be "in Colcester;" but it was held to be no variance, because "*H non* "*est litera, sed aspiratio.*" Cro. Eliz. 198. Case 18.

POETRY.

ORIGINAL.

For the Anthology.

EPISTLE

To THEOPHILUS PARSONS....*upon his accepting the Appointment of Chief Juſtice of the Supreme Judicial Court of Maſſachuſetts.*

AND does that mind, which every mind excels,
Quit the proud path where fame triumphant dwells ?
While at her side prolifick fortune stands,
And showers her bounty with unsparing hands,
Bids but thy genius ask, and all obey....
Why fling the doubly proffer'd boon away ?
For the dull *bench* the inspiring *robe* disclaim ?
False to thyself, to fortune, and to fame !

You, like an eastern monarch, reign'd alone,
Nor could the aspiring *brother* reach thy throne ;
Or, like a giant, towering o'er thy kind,
More strong than monarchs forced the sway of mind ;
But *now*, uncheer'd by fortune's vertick rays,
Tedious and tame will low'r thy shadowy days,
Condemn'd to heed the ever-during plea,
Which endless folly, blundering, pours on thee ;
Or, stifling all thy suffering heart's desire,
With faultering accent bid the wretch expire ;
Even him whose wrongs awake the feeling sigh,
Him may *unseeing* justice doom to die.--
Such is thy fate.—With pain'd and patient ear,
The hard monotony of words to bear ;
Misguided errour, wandering far from sense,
Pride's pompous phrase, and passion's rude pretence,
Await thee now, from morn's unwelcome ray
To the slow shadows of retreating day.
What though some soaring genius, true to thine,
In mental radiance bid the *Forum* shine,
Deep, fervid, full, with sacred science fraught,
And all the graced pre-eminence of thought,
Forceful as reason in her high career,
Yet falls, like musick, on the astonished ear,
When, as a charm, the fluent strain is found
To bid enamour'd silence hover round,
Calling from thee that smile, which seems to speak,
Gives the delighted flush to pass thy cheek :—
More dark will seem the void his pause supplies,
More bleak the wild that mocks thy searching eyes.

Small is the meed the uncherish'd Muse can give,
'Tis thine to honour, and thy praise will live,
Still thou must shine, and with unequall'd rays,
The undying MANSFIELD of departed days;
On thee will Genius rest her votive eyes,
Led by thy light another PARSONS rise.
GUIDE OF THE LAWS ! ne'er to thy country lost,
Thine is the wrong...but her's the boon and boast.

For the Anthology.

DEUS.

DEI supremo percita flamine
Mentem voluntas extimulat meam ;
Hinc per negatum tentat alta
Dædalius itor ire ceris.

Audetque coeli non memorabile
Metare Numen, principio carens

Et fine, diffinire Musae
Exiguæ breviore gyro.

Origo rerum et terminis omnium,
Origo, fons et principium sui,
Suique finis, terminusque ;
Principio sine terminoque.

Ubique *Totus* ; tempore in omnibus
Omni quiescens ipse Deus locis,
Partes in omnes distributus,
Integer usque manens ubique.

Nec comprehensum ullis regionibus,
Ullisve clausum limitibus loca
Tenent, sed omnis liber omne
Ditius in spatium vagatur.

Illius alta est velle potentia,
Opus voluntas invariabilis,
Et magnus absque est quantitate,
Atque bonus sine qualitate.

Quod dicit, uno tempore perficit ;
Mirere fiat vox, vel opus prius ;
Cum dixit, en, cum voce cuncta
Universa simul creata.

Cuncta intuetur, perspicit omnia,
Atque in sua unus, solus est omnia
Quæ sunt, fuerunt et futura ;
Prævidet ipse perennitate.

Atque ipse plenus, cuncta replet sui,
Et semper idem. Sustinet omnia,
Et fert, monetque amplectiturque,
Atque supercilio gubernat.

Te, te oro ; tandem respice me bonus,
Tibique nodo junge adamantino ;
Id namque solum, unumque, et omne
Reddere quod potis beatos.

Quicunque junxit se tibi, et altius
Uni adhærescit, continet omnia.
Ipsumque te, qui sis futurus
Omnibus omnia sub ministras.

Laboriosis tu vigor inclytus
Tu portus alto naufragantibus ;
Tu fons perennis perstrepentis
Qui latices salientis ardet.

Tu summa nostris pectoribus quies
Tranquillitasque et pax placidissima ;
Tu mensus es rerum modusque,
Tu species et amata forma.

Tu meta, pondus, tu numerus, decor ;
Tuque ordo, tu pax atque honor, atque
amor,
Cunctus, salusque et vita, et aucta
Nectare et ambrosia voluptas.

Tu verus altæ fons sapientiæ,
Tu vera lux, tu lex venerabilis,
Tu certa spes, tuque xirterna
Et ratio, et vita, veritasque.

Decus jubarque, et lumen amabile,
Et lumen almum atque inviolabile,
Tu summa summarum. Quid ultra ?
Maximus, optimus, unus, idem.

L.

SELECTED.

THE AFRICAN.

By Rev. W. L. Bowles.

FAINT-gazing on the burning orb of day,
When Africk's injur'd son expiring lay,
His forehead cold, his labouring bosom bare,
His dewy temples, and his sable hair,
His poor companions kiss'd, and cry'd aloud,
Rejoicing, whilst his head in peace he bow'd :—

" Now thy long, long task is done,
Swiftly, brother, wilt thou run,
Ere to-morrow's golden beam
Glitter on thy parent stream,
Swiftly the delights to share,
The feast of joy which waits thee there :
Swiftly, brother, wilt thou ride
O'er the long and stormy tide,
Fleeter than the hurricane,
Till thou view those scenes again,
Where thy father's hut was rear'd,
Where thy mother's voice was heard ;
Where thy infant brothers play'd
Beneath the fragrant citron shade ;
Where through green savannahs wide
Cooling rivers silent glide,
Or the shrill sigarras sing
Ceaseless to their murmuring ;
Where the dance, the festive song,
Of many a friend divided long,
Doom'd through stranger lands to roam,
Shall bid thy spirit welcome home !

" Fearless o'er the foaming tide
Again thy light canoe shall ride ;
Fearless on the embattled plain
Thou shalt lift thy lance again ;
Or, starting at the call of morn,
Wake the wild woods with thy horn ;
Or, rushing down the mountain-slope,
O'ertake the nimble antelope ;
Or lead the dance, 'mid blissful bands,
On cool Andracte's yellow sands ;
Or, in th' embow'ring orange grove,
Tell to thy long-forsaken love

The wounds, the agony severe,
Thy patient spirit suffer'd here!

"Fear not now the tyrant's power—
Past is his insulting hour—
Mark no more the sullen trait
On slavery's brow of scorn and hate;
Hear no more the long sigh borne
Murmuring on the gales of morn!

"Go in peace—yet we remain
Far distant, toiling on in pain;
Ere the great Sun fire the skies
To our work of woe we rise;
And see each night, without a friend,
The world's great comforter descend!

"Tell our brethren, where ye meet,
Thus we toil with weary feet;
Yet tell them, that Love's gen'rous flame,
In joy, in wretchedness, the same,
In distant worlds was ne'er forgot—
And tell them, that we murmur not—
Tell them, though the pang will start,
And drain the life-blood from the heart—
Tell them, generous shame forbids
The tear to stain our burning lids!
Tell them, in weariness and want,
For our native hills we pant,
Where soon, from shame and sorrow free,
We hope in death to follow thee."

HYMN....BY BURNS.

Scene....A field of battle....time of the day, evening....the wounded and dying of the victorious army are supposed to join in the following song.

FAREWELL, thou fair day, thou green earth, and ye skies
Now gay with the bright setting sun;
Farewell loves and friendships, ye dear tender ties,
Our race of existence is run!

Thou grim king of terrors, thou life's gloomy foe,
Go, frighten the coward and slave;
Go, teach them to tremble, fell tyrant! but know,
No terrours hast thou to the brave!

Thou strik'st the dull peasant, he sinks in the dark,
Nor saves e'en the wreck of a name;
Thou strik'st the young hero, a glorious mark!
He falls in the blaze of his fame!

In the field of proud honour...our swords in our hands,
Our king and our country to save...
While victory shines on life's last ebbing sands,
O! who would not rest with the brave!

AN EPISTLE TO J. HILL, ESQ.

By Cowper.

DEAR Joseph—five and twenty years ago—
Alas, how time escapes!—'tis even so—
With frequent intercourse, and always sweet,
And always friendly, we were wont to cheat
A tedious hour, and now we never meet!
As some grave gentleman in Terence says,
('Twas therefore much the same in ancient days)
Good lack, we know not what to-morrow brings—
Strange fluctuation of all human things!
True. Changes will befall, and friends may part,
But distance only cannot change the heart:
And, were I call'd to prove the assertion true,
One proof should serve—a reference to you.
Whence comes it, then, that in the wane of life,
Though nothing have occurr'd to kindle strife,
We find the friends we fancied we had won,
Though num'rous once, reduc'd to few or none?
Can gold grow worthless that has stood the touch?
No—gold they seem'd, but they were never such.
Horatio's servant once, with bow and cringe,
Swinging the parlour-door upon its hinge,
Dreading a negative, and overaw'd
Lest he should trespass, begg'd to go abroad.
Go, fellow!—whither?—turning short about—
Nay—stay at home—you're always going out.
'Tis but a step, Sir, just at the street's end.—
For what?—An please you, Sir, to see a friend.
A friend! Horatio cried, and seem'd to start—
Yea, marry shalt thou, and with all my heart.—
And fetch my cloak; for, tho' the night be raw,
I'll see him too—the first I ever saw.
I knew the man, and knew his nature mild,
And was his plaything often when a child;
But somewhat at that moment pinch'd him close
Else he was seldom bitter or morose,
Perhaps, his confidence just then betray'd,
His grief might prompt him with the speech he made;
Perhaps 'twas mere good humour gave it birth,
The harmless play of pleasantry and mirth.
Howe'er it was, his language, in my mind,
Bespoke at least a man that knew mankind.
But, not to moralize too much, and strain
To prove an evil of which all complain,
(I hate long arguments, verbosely spun)
One story more, dear Hill, and I have done.
Once on a time an emp'ror, a wise man—
No matter where, in China or Japan—
Decreed, that whosoever should offend
Against the well-known duties of a friend,
Convicted once, should ever after wear
But half a coat, and show his bosom bare.
The punishment importing this, no doubt,
That all was naught within, and all found out.
Oh, happy Britain! we have not to fear
Such hard and arbitrary measure here;
Else, could a law like that which I relate
Once have the sanction of our triple state,
Some few, that I have known in days of old,
Would run most dreadful risk of catching cold;
While you, my friend, whatever wind should blow,
Might traverse England safely to and fro,
An honest man, close-buttoned to the chin,
Broad-cloth without, and a warm heart within.

THE BOSTON REVIEW,

For APRIL, 1806.

Librum tuum legi & quam diligentissime potui annotavi, quæ commutanda, quæ eximenda, arbitrarer. Nam ego dicere verum assuevi. Neque ulli patientius reprehenduntur, quam qui maxime laudari merentur.—Pliny.

ARTICLE 23.

*An Enquiry into the Law Merchant of the United States; or Lex Mercatoria Americana, on several heads of commercial importance. Dedicated by permission to T. Jefferson, president of the United States. In two volumes. Vol. I.** New-York, Isaac Collins & Son, for Abraham & Arthur Stansbury, 1802. 8vo. *pp.* 815.

If any general observation applies to American writers, it is that they are not careful, by learned diligence, by the study of approved works, and by repeated essays in private, to acquire an elevated standard of taste. Who among them has shewn, that his works are the images of that divine model, which had a previous existence in the mind of the author? To make a volume, something more is necessary, than manual labour. The mere manufacturers of books are less deserving of patronage, than the humblest artizans in society. They degrade the dignity of intellectual exertion. They write only for money, and they judge of the goodness of their work, as a shopkeeper of his cloth, by its saleable quality.

The work before us is modestly entitled, "An Enquiry into the Law Merchant of the United States." From the nature of commerce it is not capable of being regulated by the municipal laws of individual states, but it must be governed by a code, which is respected by all civilized nations, and denominated the *Law Merchant*.* In respect of the universality of this system, it may be considered as a portion of the law of nations; not indeed regulating the intercourse of independent states, but obligatory on the individuals of each state among themselves, and with the citizens of other states, in the multifarious transactions of trade and commerce. Men engaged in a similar pursuit would naturally observe similar rules of acting, and this of itself sufficiently accounts for the origin of a distinct code of laws for that vast portion of our species, who are employed in the acquisition of gain by buying and selling.

The laws of particular states, which relate to commerce, usually

* This work is by George Cains of New-York. The second volume is not yet published.

* Lord Mansfield, speaking, in the case of *Luke et al* v. *Lyde*. 2d Burr. 887, of the maritime law, which is a branch of the law of commerce, says: "The maritime law is not the law of a particular country, but the general law of nations: non erit alia lex Romæ, alia Athenis; alia nunc, alia posthac; sed et apud omnes gentes et omni tempore, una eademque lex obtinebit." Cic. Off. 3. This was a question of freight between two British subjects. In expressing the opinion of the court, Lord Mansfield quoted the *Rhodian Laws*, the *Consolato del Mere*, which is a Spanish work, the *Usages and Customs of the Sea*, a French book, the *Laws of Wisbury*, the *Hanse-Town Laws*, Roccus *de Navibus et Naulo*, and the *Ordinance of Lewis the XIV.*

respect the collection of the impost. In a work therefore, which professes to treat of the commercial law of the United States, we should expect to find a digest of the statutes of congress, relating to this subject, with the constructions given to them by decisions in the federal courts, and more especially in the supreme court of the United States, together with no inconsiderable portion of the Law Merchant.

Accordingly we find, that the author in his I. chap. treats of the laws, which regulate that portion of the shipping of the United States, employed by the trading and mercantile part of the community. It contains an analysis of all the statutes relating to the title, use, and privileges of vessels, engaged either in the foreign, coasting, or fishing trades. In this chapter are some ingenious and valuable observations on the question, whether by a breach of our navigation laws the offence is inexpiable, and the property in the vessel or goods is thereby divested from the owners, so that a subsequent sale would convey no interest. Such forfeiture would arise from the policy of the navigation law, which might be defeated, if the property were safe in the hands even of a *bona fide* purchaser, for a good consideration.

The II. chap. treats of owners of ships.

The III. chap. on "commercial neutrality," treats, first, on articles contraband of war in all cases, and those which become so by an accidental combination of circumstances; secondly, on the reciprocal rights and duties of the neutral and the belligerent in cases of blockade; thirdly, on the trade which the neutral may carry on with belligerent nations; and lastly, on the right of visitation and search claimed by belligerents. It concludes with a general account of the proceedings in the admiralty in cases of prize. The natural situation of our country is highly favourable, both for peace & for commerce, and therefore the rights of neutrals to carry on commerce with other nations, which are at war, are to our citizens peculiarly interesting. They should be asserted with the authority due to reason and to the usages of nations heretofore, and with all the energy of national strength. A direct trade by neutrals between the colony and the mother country of a belligerent is contrary to the law of nations. But neutrals have heretofore been authorised to import the produce of a belligerent into their own territories, and to export it to any other, even to the mother country. Where this is done in strict conformity with good faith, without any attempt to prosecute, by a circuitous transportation, a commerce between the colony and the mother country, we conceive that the trade is authorised by the law of nations. That a neutral should be prohibited by a belligerent from prosecuting a commerce in war, because it is interdicted in peace, is most unreasonable. For a nation, as well as an individual, has the right to pursue its own interests, and to seize favourable opportunities, either for profit or for glory. Unless fraud is made manifest, we apprehend, that no belligerent may lawfully interrupt the neutral in the acquisition of the gain, which flows from his neutral position. This chapter is almost entirely taken from the celebrated Reports of Robinson in the Admiralty. We wish that the author had been more minute in that part of it, which relates to the forms and

method of proceeding in the admiralty. Professional gentlemen in this country are generally deficient in their knowledge of this branch of legal science, and have access but to few sources of information on the subject.

In chapter IV. the author treats generally of masters of ships, as acting for themselves, as representing their owners, and as carriers of the cargo laden on board. He has likewise collected the provisions of the general and state governments, relative to the transportation of citizens, and to the importation of aliens, paupers, and offenders against the laws of other countries.

Chapter V. is on bills of lading, in which the author has well discussed the doctrine of "stoppage in transitu." From the cases, which he has diligently collected, it is evident, that a consignor has a right to arrest goods in their course, before they have come to the possession of the consignee, if they have not been paid for, or there is reasoable ground to fear the insolvency of the consignee. But as it would offend against common honesty, and might be injurious to commerce, if the consignor could prevent goods from coming to the possession of an assignee, to whom they have been transferred *bona fide*, and for a valuable consideration, it is now well settled, ascording to the final decision of the case of Lickbarrow against Mason, in the courts of Westminster, and is now "the general opinion of lawyers, that such an assignment does give an absolute right and property to the assignee, indefeasible by any claim on the part of the consignor."

The VI. chapter contains an ample collection of the cases, which relate to the carriage of goods, either by land or water.

The VII. treats of the rights and duties of seamen.

The subjects considered in the VIII. are freight, charterparty, and demurrage. In the IX. average and salvage. In the X. insurance. In the XI. bottomry and respondentia. In the XII. merchants, agents, factors, and brokers. In the XIII. partnership; and in the XIV. bankruptcy. The appendix contains forms of papers used at the custom house, admiralty precedents, and policies of insurance; together with a copious index of the principal matters in the volume.

Every treatise on the law, must derive its value from the correctness and fidelity, with which the author collects and reports the principles and decisions, which belong to his subject.

In analyzing and digesting the statutes of our government the author has exerted a very commendable industry. Compared with the size of the volume, and the variety of subjects which it contains, we regret, that he has been able to collect but so small a number of precedents, taken from decisions in our own country. Either we have not yet learnt the art of reporting legal adjudications, or else the occupation does not present, to those who are qualified for the office, a sufficient prospect of gain. In truth, while the unbounded rage for speculation, and the violence of party spirit universally occupy the minds of our citizens, our country will produce but few men eminent for literary accomplishment, and but few examples of professional excellence.

In perusing this volume, we have not always subscribed to the legal opinions of the author, and

indeed we do not think, that the work derives its greatest value from what may be properly called its *original* matter. In chapter II. p. 98. he says,

Ship owners are tenants in common, and therefore cannot bring trover, one againſt another, for running away with, and converting the common property; becauſe the poſſeſſion of one is the poſſeſſion of all, and therefore no converſion: but a ſpecial action in the caſe would lie: *and why, in caſe of an actual converſion by a ſale of the common property, trover might not be brought, I cannot well conceive.* It is ſettled that an ejectment may be maintained by one tenant in common, againſt another, after an ouſter; and that though, in order to work this, a bare perception of profits is not ſufficient, yet it need not be actual; for if, on demand by the co-tenant, of his moiety, the other refuſe to pay it; and deny the title, ſaying he claims the whole and will not pay, and continue in poſſeſſion; it is an adverſe holding, and an ouſter; ſo in the caſe of a ſhip, the mere receiving her freight might not amount to a converſion, but if this be accompanied with a denial of the joint owners right, and an excluſion from the poſſeſſion, it would, I preſume, be difficult to maintain there was not a converſion; the author is aware the actions of ejectment and trover are not exactly analogous; that in the former, poſſeſſion, in the latter, damages are recovered; and that detinue would, according to the phraſe of logicians, run more quatuor pedibus; but as the reaſon aſſigned why trover cannot be ſupported is, that the poſſeſſion of one tenant in common is the poſſeſſion of the other, and therefore no converſion: if, between ſuch parties, an ouſter can be effected, the principle of community of poſſeſſion is gone, and that being deſtroyed, the poſſibility of converſion inſtantly ariſes. Equity exiſts, as it is well ſaid, in the fictions of law, but in that combatted, it ſurely is not to be found.

In chattel intereſts, like thoſe of ſhipping, the means of recourſe for one owner againſt another, ought, from the facility of alienation, rather to be multiplied than diminiſhed. One tenant in common cannot transfer the land of his co-proprietor, becauſe it muſt be conveyed by deed; but as in perſonalties, a right of poſſeſſion is ſufficient to paſs the ownerſhip, the diſpoſition by one jointholder of a ſhip will be good againſt his aſſociates, if followed by delivery of poſſeſſion.

This opinion is imagined to be correct, notwithſtanding the mode of conveyance pointed out by the regiſter act; for though a bill of ſale be neceſſary under its proviſions, that circumſtance does not, it is conceived, alter the legal nature of the ſubject matter, which continues expoſed to the ſame exerciſe of power by which it was tranſmiſſible before the law was ordained.

Therefore, the mode by which a ſhip may be ſet over, remains for the purpoſe of veſting the intereſt, the ſame as at common law, though certain formalities are requiſite, in order to entitle to a regiſter.

The action of trover would not lie in behalf of one ship owner, where the common property had been sold by another, because the sale would not amount to a conversion of the property, as nothing would be conveyed by the sale, but the share of the vendor. There is a distinction to be observed between joint owners and joint traders, or, as they are commonly called, co-partners in trade, where each can by his act bind the society, "where each has the entire possession as well of every *parcel*, as of the whole," and where therefore a sale or transfer by one will convey the interest of the whole. Mr. Cains has in another place (p. 423) noted this distinction, observing of proprietors of a ship, that they are "tenants in common, and not joint tenants," and wanting therefore "an essential characteristick in the constitution of a partnership concern." The possession of a ship is not considered as proof of ownership; and hence we infer, that when one ship owner undertakes to sell and transfer the common property, no more is conveyed than

the share of the vendor. The purchaser then becomes a tenant in common with the other owners for that share only, in the same manner as though the proportion had been expressed in the deed of conveyance. 'If two have jointly by gift or by buying a horse or an oxe, &c. and the one grant that to him belongs of the same horse or oxe to another, the grantee, and the other which did not grant, shall have and possesse such chattels personals in common.' Lit. *Tenures*, sec. 321.

The provisions of law, relative to the evils which may arise among ship owners, are equal to any occasions, which may occur. If one, part owner, should run away with the whole property against the will, and without the knowledge of the rest, it would in moral contemplation be a fraud, though it might be impossible to pursue the actor as a felon. But as soon as he should come within the reach of the process of the admiralty, he might be compelled either to resign the property or to stipulate with his partners for their security. If we are correct in this point, the remedy which the admiralty provides is far superiour to any which could be obtained by the action of trover, or by any other of the comparatively slow forms of the common law. Should this book ever come to a second edition, we recommend to the author a careful revisal of this chapter, and beg leave to refer him to the learned note of Serjeant Williams on the action of trover, 2 Saunder's Reports 47., from which we extract the following observation: 'If one joint tenant, tenant in common or parcener, *destroy* the thing in common, the other may bring trover. Co. Lit. 200 a. Therefore where one tenant in common of a ship took it away, and sent it to the West Indies, where it was lost in a storm, this was held by King C. I. of the C. B. to be evidence of a destruction, and the jury under his directions found it to be so. Bull. N. P. 34, 35.'

We sincerely regret, that the author was not more patient in digesting and arranging his materials into form and order. From the appearance of the work we are led to judge, that it is the juvenile production of a student, who mistook laborious compilation of notes for learning. Treatises of such magnitude are intended principally for reference and easy access; on which account a lucid division of the subject is essential. But the doctrines and principles, contained under many of the titles in this book, are blended together, without form or comeliness. They remind us of the primitive state of things, described by the poets, as

"rudis et sine imagine tellus."

The reader will be convinced of this, without comparing it with the celebrated treatise of Abbot "on the Law relative to Merchant Ships and Seamen," a work of standard authority, and as admirable for its style and manner, as for its legal correctness.

The style of this work is by no means worthy of praise. The author sometimes affects uncommon elegance in his periods. In chapter IV., speaking of a law of Virginia, which forbids masters of vessels to carry any person out of that commonwealth, unless such person shall have first published, for six months successively in the Virginia Gazette, his resolution to depart therefrom, the writer adds, "*this publick advertisement of the Virginia code is hardly compatible with the locomotive rights of repub-*

lican liberty." (p. 136.) We are gratified with elegance of style, wherever it occurs, and do not think, that it is excluded from the most abstract legal subject. But passages like the above thrown into a book, the general character of whose style is rather below the plain,* have a fantastick appearance. Like the feast of a beggar, they serve to render the ordinary fare of the year still more disgusting.

In concluding our notice of this work we would observe, that *not to expect perfection* is as just a caution, when applied to books, as to men. So far as charity is consistent with the moral progress of the human character, its observance is a precept of religion ; and so far as tenderness to the imperfect literary attempts of our countrymen will not tend to diminish the activity of their genius, and to foster the spirit of indolence, so delicious and so powerful, we feel bound to indulge it, in surveying the domestick publications of our country.

ART. 24.

Illustrations and Reflections on the story of Saul's consulting the witch of Endor : a discourse, delivered at West Springfield, by Joseph Lathrop, D. D. pastor of the first church in said town. Springfield, Brewer. 1806. 8*vo. pp.* 20.

The character of Dr. Lathrop, as a preacher, stands deservedly high ; and if it should not be increased, will certainly receive no diminution, by the present publication. The Dr. treats his subject in a rational manner, and deduces from it the three following inferences : 1. That we are taught from it the separate existence of the soul after death. 2. That we may infer from it that the spirits of pious men were formerly, and may be still, on some occasions, employed as ministers of God's providence in this world. 3. That we are warned by it of the guilt and danger which we incur, when we take indirect measures to learn the secrets of Providence, and the events of futurity.

In his second inference, the Dr. is supported by the authority of the best English divines, who attempt to prove, on scriptural grounds, the existence of angels, and their occasional interference with the concerns of men. Milton, who was no despicable theologian, carries the idea still farther, and supposes that malignant, as well as benevolent spirits, are active though invisible agents in this lower world.

> Spirits, when they please,
> Can execute their airy purposes,
> And works of love or enmity fulfil.

The style of this discourse is neat and perspicuous, and we shall subjoin an extract, in which the Dr. exposes, with great good sense, the folly and danger of giving credit to village conjurers and pretended adepts in the black art.

> Let us ſuppoſe that people generally give credit to ſuch perſons ; and then ſee what will be the conſequence. A caſualty happens, or ſome miſchief is done in our neighbourhood ; a barn is burned, or a man is miſſing, poſſibly dead, or property is loſt. We know not how ; but we ſuſpect, it is done by ſome deſigning villain. We diſpatch a meſſenger to the conjurer. What is the moral

* In the following paſſage, which occurs in page 67, the author uſes an expreſſion, which is ſcarcely admiſſible in the plaineſt ſtyle : " The forfeitures for transferring veſſels to aliens and non-reſidents, under the acts regulating their regiſtring, recording, enrolling and licencing, *ſtick by* the ſhip as long as ſhe laſts, and are in the revenue creed inexpiable ſins."

character of this conjurer, we know not, nor do we much care. It is not the man, but the conjurer with whom we are now concerned. If we cannot truſt him in any other capacity, yet we can truſt him in this. The meſſenger goes and opens his buſineſs; an anſwer is given importing, that the miſchief was perpetrated by a certain man of ſuch a deſcription. We think of ſomebody, to whom the deſcription, with a little help of imagination, will ſuit tolerably well. Or perhaps the meſſenger has an enemy whom he ſuſpects, and prejudice will eaſily modify the picture ſo as to repreſent him. A hint is given—it is thrown into circulation—it gains credit; and an honeſt man is ruined. Thus divination, when it is held in general repute, puts it in every man's power to deſtroy every man, whom he will.

Why do you wiſh to know the author of a miſchief which has been done? You will ſay, You wiſh the villain may be puniſhed, the injury repaired, and evil prevented. Very well: Then take the proper ſteps to detect and arreſt the offender. If a conjurer points out ſuch, or ſuch a perſon, as the criminal, he may indeed gratify your curioſity, and perhaps your malice; but he does no good to ſociety. His ſuggeſtion is not evidence, on which the ſuppoſed perpetrator can be convicted. If it was, no mortal would be ſafe. You perhaps believe the inſinuation, and you make others believe it. But when the general ſuſpicion falls on an innocent man, inveſtigation ſtops; this innocent man ſuffers the reproach, and the really guilty lies unſuſpected, and eſcapes unpuniſhed. And when a new miſchief happens, the ſame ſcene may be acted over again.

On ſocial, therefore, as well as on religious principles, theſe diviners ought to be proſecuted, rather than encouraged—to be puniſhed, rather than patronized. Judge Blackſtone ſays, that "pretending to tell fortunes, and to diſcover ſtolen goods by ſkill in the occult ſciences, is a miſdemeanour, deſervedly puniſhed by law." The reaſon why it deſerves puniſhment is, becauſe it not only tends to ſubvert religion but alſo to diſturb the peace of ſociety, and deſtroy the reputation and ſecurity of every virtuous member.

ART. 25.

The Life and Campaigns of Victor Moreau, comprehending his trial, juſtification, and other events, till the period of his embarkation for the United States. By an officer of the ſtaff. Tranſlated from the French. New-York, publiſhed by Riley & Co. 1806. 12*mo. pp.* 288.

THE tranſlator or compiler of this piece of biography is a Mr. John Davis, who, we would inform our readers, as otherwiſe they would not probably know it, has publiſhed ſome poems, and a volume of travels through the United States. For what parts of this work we are indebted to the original genius of Mr. Davis, we are unable to diſcover, as he has left us no criterion, by which we can diſtinguiſh his own ingenuity from that of his author. We muſt conſider the whole, therefore, as the work of Mr. Davis, ſince he has moſt heroically taken its reſponſibility upon himſelf. But let us hear Mr. Davis in perſon. "I am not the *negative* tranſlator of the book, that has been put into my hands. I have felt an ardour to ſupply a work, that ſhould gratify inquiry, and where I found the original wanting in information, I have made up the deficiency by laborious, patient, and perſevering research. Hence my volume will not ſuffer by a comparison with the original, whoſe characteriſtick is detail." Again. "If the moral character of the generals be developed, and the attractions of biography engrafted on hiſtory, the reader is indebted to the zeal, diligence, and inquiry of the tranſlator."

This is modeſt, ſtill to call himſelf a tranſlator, after theſe high claims on the approbation of the

publick. Quere, what are we to understand by a *negative* translator?

The following portrait of the archduke Charles may gratify the curiosity of the American publick.

The young prince was an illuſtrious opponent for Moreau at the opening of his campaign. He was conſpicuous for his talents, bravery, and conduct. He was the idol of his ſoldiers, in great publick eſtimation, and the roſe and expectancy of the country that gave him birth. He was of a middle ſtature, well proportioned, but thin; light hair, high forehead, large blue eyes, an aquiline noſe, pale lips, round chin, and of a freſh and roſy complexion. His look was pleaſing, his manners princely, his deportment majeſtick.

This picture is well-drawn, and makes us acquainted with the perſon of a hero, who long since might have rescued continental Europe from the disgraceful chains of Gallick slavery, had not his genius been checked, and his plans thwarted by the mean jealousies of his own infatuated court. There is a defect, however, in the third sentence, where there are several nominatives without a verb.

"Ferino was given the command of the right wing." This is not English. He should have written, The command of the right was given to Ferino.

Mr. Davis occasionally attempts the pathetick.

That day roſe on them panting for renown, whoſe night ſaw them motionleſs on the crimſoned plain. On what a ſlender thread hangs the deſtiny of man! Quenched in a moment were their glorious fires of intellectual valour. Cruſhed was every hope they had fondly cheriſhed of being preſſed again to the heaving beauties of their miſtreſſes at home, who breathed for them their deep prayers, and in whoſe ſighs for their abſence was mingled the murmur of love! Farewell to hope! Farewell to earthly bliſs! No more were they to witneſs the endearing ſmile, no more to enjoy the fairy favours of beauty!

This is on a level with the style of a lady's maid, in her first essay at novel-writing.

If any doubt should remain of the modesty of Mr. Davis, the following note must remove it.

The intelligent reader will perceive, that wherever a diſquiſition appears, or reflexion is exerciſed, (whether in a whole chapter or detached paſſages) it does not emanate from the French verbum ſapientè.

Mr. Davis is not very accurate in his language, nor well founded in all his assertions. He uses the neuter verb *glide* in an active sense, ('where the Seine *glides* its waves') contrary to established usage, and affirms that General Moreau 'transcends Xenophon in a military capacity, and rivals him as a scholar.'

That the General is a great soldier, no one will deny, but, that his literary talents equal those of the all-accomplished Athenian, is an assertion, which requires better evidence, than the mere *ipse dixit* of Mr. Davis.

On the whole, this work is a catch-penny production, and adds nothing to the wealth of literature, or to the reputation of the writer.

ART. 26.

Collections of the Massachusetts Historical Society for the year 1799. *Vol. VI.* Boston, S. Hall. 8*vo. pp.* 288.

We have now advanced, in the irregular course of our criticism, to the sixth volume of the Historical Collections. As in our former reviews we have stated so fully the importance and the dryness of the documents in general, their value to the regular annalist, and their indifference to the ordinary reader, we shall spend no fur-

ther time on these or collateral topicks, but shall proceed to a cursory statement of the papers in this volume. Before, however, we begin our critical duty, we shall say a few words on the Rev. Dr. Clarke's and Rev. Dr. Belknap's characters, of which some account is prefixed to the work.

Dr. Clarke has been estimated too highly as a man of letters, both in general conversation and in the volume before us. He certainly was not a scholar of the first or the second class. Unquestionably he was a man of the mildest disposition, of the most amiable temper, and of easy, unassuming deportment. These are qualities always important and highly commendatory ; and in Dr. Clarke they originated a course of conduct, as a man, a christian, and a preacher, perfectly correspondent. But to celebrate him "as distinguished in the literary world," as "no *common* proficient in the liberal arts and sciences," is a benevolent extension of eulogy, which resembles a glaring, though unintentional violation of truth. It is also highly detrimental to our literature, because it stops the progress of ambition ; and it is injurious to our renown in Europe, because foreign scholars in vain seek for erudition or literature in the writings of Dr. Clarke ; and they have a right to contend, as perfectly applicable, what we are disposed to consider as probably true, that "de non apparentibus et de non existentibus eadem est ratio."

The Rev. Dr. Belknap is a different character. His writings exhibit large extent of research, much depth of investigation, and variety of knowledge. He knew something of physical science. He chiefly delighted, like the German literati, in laborious operation, yet in his Foresters he is easy, cheerful, and witty. We do not mean, that even Belknap was a great scholar in the dignified acceptation of the term, but his reading was very extensive, his information remarkably varied, and his reflections clear, full, and efficient. This conclusion easily results from a perusal of all his works, particularly 'the History of New-Hampshire,' 'the Century discourse,' and 'the American Biography.'

In our opinions of literary men of this country we are always cautious, and therefore we wish to be clearly understood. Eulogy here is perfectly absurd. It is either the vilest daubing of colours, or the most grotesque caricature of expression. If a man write an historical work, he becomes a Sallust ; if he stitch together doggrel couplets against democracy, he is transformed into a Butler ; preachers have been likened to Masillon ; and, by some strange, incomprehensible metempsychosis, Antonius and Crassus of the Roman forum are revived in more than former splendour in the persons of American pleaders.

"Remarks made during a residence at Stabroek Rio Demerary, lat. 6. 10. N. in the latter part of the year 1798. By Thomas Pierronet."

This paper contains much curious information, and some valuable facts. We submit the following to our readers.

The interiour will probably never be brought to a ſtate of cultivation, owing to the want of drainage ; or at leaſt the tract ſixty miles from the ſea, which is a vaſt drowned ſwamp. All the improvements have been hitherto made on the ſea-coaſt, and on the banks of the rivers, and very rarely has a plantation been carried farther back. The labour in forming a new plantation is immenſe,

and can only be eſtimated by thoſe who have been ſpectators thereof.

The produce of theſe ſettlements are coffee, cotton, and ſugar. Of theſe, cotton is ſuppoſed to be the moſt precarious crop. Too much rain rots it, and a ſucceſſion of dry weather cauſes it to blaſt. Coffee, on the contrary, has nothing to fear, except from too much wet. Several eſtates make a good revenue from their plantain walks; a bunch of which previous to the importation of 60,000 ſlaves by the Engliſh into the colony, was ſold for $2\frac{1}{4}$ ſtivers, but now fetches $12\frac{1}{2}$.

Animal labour is totally excluded, unleſs it be that of the horſe, when uſed for the ſaddle or chair. This is not ſo much to be wondered at, when it is conſidered, that the low country does not produce even a pebble. A team of oxen or horſes, with a heavy draught, would deſtroy the beſt road in Demerary in the rainy ſeaſon. As for the interiour, the ſoil is ſo ſwampy, that an animal of burthen would ſink to its belly at every ſtep. However, the coloniſts contrive to interſect the country with ſuch a multitude of canals, that the heavieſt articles are delivered them at a very cheap rate.

The cutting of graſs is very laborious and tireſome; and as it is the only herbaceous food of the horſes, it is neceſſary to procure great quantities of it. The only way uſed here, to obtain it, is by ſending out the negroes with a knife, who by this tedious operation, each one at length collects a bundle, which may weigh eighty pounds, which he binds like a wheat ſheaf, and carries off. It is remarkable, that the ſcythe, ſickle, flail, plough, waggon, or even hand-barrow, are abſolutely unknown in the colony.

Negroes. The negroes are ſubſiſted at a very eaſy rate; a bunch of plantains, which will laſt them a week, and a little ſalt-fiſh, form their delicacies. As for their clothing, the far greater part of them have only a narrow ſtrip of bunting to bind round their middle, while many of the younger claſſes have not even this ornament. However, in ſome families they are comfortably clothed, and fed with ſcraps, which have reached the ſecond day. Their lodgings are, however, on the bare floor, where they generally lay promiſcuouſly.

They are puniſhed very ſeverely; although it depends very much on the diſpoſition of their owners, whether they go through a conſtant whipping, or whether they experience a milder fate. Theft and deſertion are generally left to the fiſcal, whoſe agents apply from two to five hundred laſhes (according to their ſentence) with a long whip, which lacerates them horridly. Theſe laſhes are always applied on the bare breech, and the culprit prevented from ſitting thereon for three months.

Crimes of greater magnitude are extenuated by the rack, and ſubſequent decapitation.

The negroes are allowed the privilege of the Sunday, when they come into the town, either to work in cleaning out the trenches, &c. or, with a load of fruit or vegetables, which they diſpoſe of for their own emolument. After they have received the amount of their perquiſite, they either lay out the money in procuring ſome little neceſſaries, or otherwiſe in drinking, gambling, and dancing; and the day is generally concluded by one or more battles.

"Specimen of the Mountaineer, or Sheshatapooshshoish, Skoffie, and Micmac Languages."

The vocabularies add to our knowledge of Indian languages. The author's source of information is apparently good, yet what is the reason that he does not tell his own name? He often is known by the emphatical I; but now, for the first time in the world, a personal pronoun designates nobody, except a metaphysical entity.

"General John Winslow's Letter to the Earl of Halifax, relative to his conduct, and that of the troops under his command, on the Ticonderogo expedition in 1756."

As General W. was "the only person, who had been in the whole of these matters," he is entitled to be heard, and his narrative has the the appearance of candour and fidelity.

"Secretary Willard's Letter to Mr. Bollan, agent for the colony of Massachusetts-Bay, relative to the failure of Crown-Point expedition, and reimbursement from G. Britain."

"Letter from William Bollan, agent for the colony of Massachusetts-Bay, to the speaker of the house of assembly of that colony."

"A memorandum of divers particulars, shewing the exhausted state of Massachusetts province, and the necessity of a considerable parliamentary grant, to relieve its distress, and enable it to answer the demands for the publick service in the next campaign, referred to in the preceding letter."

From various documents in these Collections, Mr. Bollan seems to have been a most active, faithful colonial agent. In the civil history of Massachusetts he is often mentioned with honour. His various memorials, petitions, and statements shew a mind replete with proper information for the benefit of the colonies, and if he was as respectable in private life, as he was diligent and laborious in publick exertions, the state of Massachusetts ought not willingly to let his memory die.

"A brief state of the province of Quebec, as to its constitution, number of inhabitants, laws, commerce, population, circulating property, tenure of real property, science, &c. written in the year 1787."

This paper may be consulted with some advantage. The official information is good, because correct; but facts have shown many of the commercial opinions to be false. It will give some idea of the colony of Canada in 1786, but since that period new laws of parliament, treaties, and the growth of the United States have variously affected that country in its settlement, fur trade, civilization, commerce, and agriculture.

"Continuation of the narrative of newspapers published in New-England, from the year 1704 to the revolution; in a letter from one the members to the president the society."

This memoir continues the history of New-England newspapers to the year 1770—2. It is interspersed with various information and minute political literature. There is a queerness and a quaintness in the narrative, which resembles the manner of a pleasant old gentleman telling curious anecdotes of times before the revolution. It concludes with an account of Connecticut newspapers by Mr. Noah Webster.

"Mr. Dummer's letters to Mr. Flint."

"James Cudworth's letter to Governour Josiah Winslow, declining his appointment to a military command."

In a note, added to explain this letter, it is mentioned as probable, that the writer was appointed to the command of certain forces, raised on account of a sudden alarm that the Dutch had taken some ships in Virginia, and having possessed themselves of New-York, were bound for the northward; but from Hutchinson it is clear, that the news did not arrive at Boston till August, 1673, and Cudworth's letter is dated in January 1673. The letter deserves perusal from its patriarchal simplicity.

"James Cudworth's letter to Gov. Josiah Winslow."

This letter was written during the first expedition against Philip.

"Letter from John Easton to Governour Josiah Winslow of Plymouth colony."

Explanatory of the Indian law respecting ship-wrecked goods.

"Letter from Nathaniel Thomas, on the expedition against Philip, to Governour Winslow."

"A Letter from Secretary Rawson to Governour Winslow, to be communicated to the Council."

This letter is dated Boston, 14 March, 1673—4, and relates some proceedings of the government of Massachusetts in reference to "the late and present actings of the Dutch in the sound."

"Letter from Gov. Leverett to Gov. Winslow."

"Letter from Edward Palmer to Governour Josiah Winslow."

"Letter from John Freeman to Gov. Winslow."

"Return of loss, in Scituate, in Philip's war."

These relate to Indian wars in 1675—6.

"Edward Randolph's letter to Governour Josiah Winslow, relative to his proceedings at Piscataqua."

"Sachem Philip, his answer to the letter brought to him from the Governour of New-Plymouth."

"Edward Rawson's letter to the Governour of New-Plymouth, soliciting aid for the college at Cambridge."

"Letter of instructions from the Massachusetts General Court to William Bollan, their agent at the court of Great-Britain."

These instructions were made in 1756, to assist Mr. Bollan in an humble and earnest application to his majesty for relief from the grievous burden the province was under from the impressing of seamen, fishermen, and others, for the manning of his majesty's ships of war.

"Letter from Leonard Hoar, M. D. to Josiah Flint."

In this long letter much advice is given upon studying, and common place books or paper books, as the writer calls them. It is curious to observe, what books were once read and recommended. Peter Ramus, who now is hardly consulted even by the metaphysician, is in this letter extolled, as "the grand, the incomparable." Dr. Ames's Medulla is known only to the reader of catalogues. And for direction and encouragement in devotional exercises and holy meditation who would now read "The practice of Augustine, Bernard, or Gerard; or of more modern worthies J. Ambrose, R. Baxter, B. Hall, or W. Watson, as to the theoretical part"? The works of these men are now the secure lodgments of spiders, book lice and flies in winter. Their merit is almost unknown even to the theological inquirer. They lay in old libraries, as long lances and baronial shields in gothick armouries, testimonials of ancient elaboration and gradual decay.

"Some memoirs for the continuation of the history of the troubles of the New-English colonies, from the barbarous and perfidious Indians, instigated by the more savage and inhuman French of Canada and Nova-Scotia. Began Nov. 3, 1726. By Benjamin Colman, D. D."

"Letter from Henry Newman, to the Rev. Henry Flynt."

Upon some books for Harvard College.

"Letter from Paul Mascarene to Governour Shirley."

This relates to the history of the government of Nova-Scotia from 1710 to 1748 with suggestions of amendments.

"Prince and Bosworth's petition to the government of Plymouth, relative to the mackarel fishery."

"Letter from William Bollan, agent for the Massachusetts, at the court of Great-Britain, to Josiah Willard, secretary of that province, respecting an intention of governing the colonies like Ireland."

"Mr. Bollan's petition to the duke of Bedford, relative to French encroachments, 1748."

This is an important historical and geographical document, and ought to be read by him, who wishes to understand the whole reasons of the war, that terminated by the peace of 1763. The boundaries of the French and English colonies in North America, as described by charter, conquest, treaties, and maps, were often perplexed and sometimes inconsistent. Both nations had plausible arguments in their favour, and nationality of spirit added the obstinacy of prejudice to the real appearance of equity in their long and fatiguing diplomatick discussions. Which party was right is not difficult for an Englishman or a Frenchman to say; and the philosophick inquirer may well be excused from deciding an old question of colonial boundaries, when he observes that now dynasties are annihilated, and empires overturned by French despotick power, without the courtesy of negociation or the formality of resistance.

"Gov. Hamilton's letter to Gov. Shirley."

This letter inclosed the next communication, entitled

"Major Washington's letter to Governour Hamilton,"

In which Major W. relates the progress of his detachment towards the Ohio in the war of 1754, and incloses two other documents, entitled

"A Summon, by order of Contrecœur, captain of one of the companies of the detachment of the French marine, commander in chief of his most christian majesty's troops now on the Beautiful river—to the commander of those of the king of Great-Britain, at the mouth of the river Monongahela,"

To which Mr. Ward was obliged to submit; And

"Speech from the Half King to the Governours of Virginia and Pennsylvania, referred to in Major Washington's letter."

By which the Half King offers assistance.

"A list of the Presidents of the colony of Rhode-Island and Providence plantations, under the first charter; and of the Governours, under the second charter, collected from the publick records."

"Letter from his Excellency Gov. Jay, corresponding member of the Historical Society, to its corresponding secretary."

This letter corrects two mistakes in the report of the committee of the board of correspondents of the Scots society for propagating christian knowledge, &c. published in the Hist. Col. for 1798.

"A letter from the treasurer of the Massachusetts Historical Society to the president, on the propriety and expediency of an appropriate national name, designatory of the citizens of the United States, as a distinct people from the other inhabitants of the two vast American peninsulas."

This memoir is written with ingenuity, and in an easy style. Mr. Tudor is forcible in his reasons against the retention of America, as a geographical term to designate the United States, and proposes Columbia, as a suitable name.

"Letter from his late Excellency Jonathan Trumbull, Esq. to Baron J. D. Vander Capellan, seigneur du Pol, membre des nobles de la province d'Overysul, &c."

Gov. Trumbull, after briefly touching on the early settlement of Massachusetts and Connecticut, relates the history of the American war till 1779—80, and the then state of the country. We extract a very important paragraph.

In 1640, governour Winthrop, in his Journal, inſerts the following paſſage, viz. "Upon the great liberty which the king left the parliament to in England, ſome of our friends there wrote to us, adviſing, to ſend over ſome to ſolicit for us in parliament, giving us hopes we might obtain much: but conſulting about it, we (the governour and aſſiſtants, convened in council) declined the motion for this conſideration, that if we ſhould put ourſelves under the protection of parliament, we muſt be ſubject to all ſuch laws they ſhould make, or at leaſt ſuch as they might impoſe on us; in which courſe, though they ſhould intend our good, yet it might prove very prejudicial to us." Here obſerve, that as at this time, ſo it hath been ever ſince, that the colonies, ſo far from acknowledging the parliament to have a right to make laws binding on them in all caſes whatſoever, they have ever denied it in any caſe.

"The petition of the Earl of Stirling, William PhillipsLee, and Mary Trumbull, praying to be put in poſſeſſion of ſome lands, called the county of Canada, granted to William Earl of Stirling, in 1635, by the council for the affairs of N. England. 1760."

"Letter from Jaſper Mauduit, Eſq. to the Speaker of the houſe of repreſentatives of the province of Maſſachuſetts-Bay, relative to a reimburſement from parliament for the expenſe of ſupporting the French neutrals from Nova Scotia."

"Letter from Jaſper Mauduit, Eſq. to the Speaker of the houſe of repreſentatives of the province of Maſſachuſetts-Bay, relative to the duty laid by parliament on foreign molaſſes."

"Letter from Jaſper Mauduit, Eſq. to the Speaker of the houſe of repreſentatives of the province of Maſſachuſetts-Bay, relative to the duty on foreign molaſſes, the keeping up ten thouſand troops in America, &c."

The titles explain the ſubjects of the foregoing papers. The hiſtorian will conſult them, and the careleſs reader will conſult the hiſtorian.

"Letter from Thomas Mayhew to Gov. Prince,"

Upon the politicks of the Indians of the Elizabeth iſlands and the Vineyard in 1671.

"James Walker's letter to Gov. Prince."

A few particulars about king Philip.

"Daniel Gookin's letter to Gov. Prince."

"Letter from Gov. Prince to Daniel Gookin."

"Inſtructions from the church at Natick to William and Anthony."

They were appointed mediators between the Miſſogkonnog Indians and the government of Plymouth in 1671."

"Copy of a letter from Governour Prince to Roger Williams."

This is an anſwer to a complaint of Roger Williams about liberty of religious worſhip, which he feared the colonies of Maſſachuſetts, Connecticut, and Plymouth intended to take from him by conquering his colony at Providence.

"James Quanapaug's information."

Quanapaug was ſent from Natick in 1675 to reconnoitre hoſtile Indians, king Philip, Narraganſetts, &c. He ſaw much, and told it well.

"Letter from Governour Stuyveſant, of N. York, to the Governour and Council of Maſſachuſetts."

Gov. S. complains of the irregular proceedings of ſome Engliſh colonial officers in New-York and the unjuſtifiable outrages of a large company of men on Long Iſland, and wiſhes for peaceable accommodation. Boſton has long been celebrated for courteſy and kind attention to ſtrangers, and we are proud to mention, that in 1663 Gov. S. thus writes:

The engagement whereby I confeſſed myſelf obliged unto your honours, to your citizens, both horſe and foot, for the large reſpects, honourable reception, and entertainment in the city and colony of Boſton, doth provoke me, by this ſeaſonable opportunity, to return all due and thankful acknowledgment, which ſhould have been done ſooner, if my ſickneſs and other intervening occaſions, had not occaſioned this neglect. But I hope it will never be too late to offer this tribute of thankfulneſs, and due engagement, unto your honours, in any occaſion.

"Deposition of Hugh Cole, at Plymouth Court, A. D. 1670,"

About king Philip.

"A Description and History of Salem, by Rev. William Bentley."

The history of Salem contains a great variety of facts. Whether all the statements are correct, we are not able to decide; nor can we point out what is true, and what is false. Dr. Bentley has investigated with diligence the state of population, diseases, religious worship, &c. His opinions and inferences may be open to doubt, but we are not disposed to withhold praise from curiosity of inquiry and accumulation of results. The character given of Roger Williams is different from that to be drawn from the statements of former historians, and although Dr. Bentley may have correctly estimated that singular man, still, as he knew there were doubts respecting the true character of the Patriarch of Providence, he ought to have cited authorities in support of his opinions. He would have made the work more luminous, had he divided it into chapters with appropriate heads; for now we cannot with facility find any particular fact, required to be known. The author mentions at the close, that the history is to be continued, but in the succeeding volumes of the Historical Collections the continuation does not appear. We hope he will proceed in the work, for diligence and exactness are not to be found in every historian; and these qualities shall always receive our praise, though our disapprobation may be sometimes excited by obscurity of style and perplexity of arrangement. As a specimen of Dr. Bentley's work we insert the character of Roger Williams, and we are willing to believe every commendation of this extraordinary man; of one, who was enterprizing, eccentrick, heroick, and pious.

In Salem, every perſon loved Mr. Williams. He had no perſonal enemies under any pretence. All valued his friendſhip. Kind treatment could win him, but oppoſition could not conquer him. He was not afraid to ſtand alone for truth againſt the world; and he had always addreſs enough, with his firmneſs, never to be forſaken by the friends he had ever gained. He had always a tenderneſs of conſcience, and feared every offence againſt moral truth. He breathed the pureſt devotion. He was ready in thoughts and words, and defied all his vaunting adverſaries to publick diſputation. He had a familiar imagery of ſtyle, which ſuited his times, and he indulged even in the titles of his controverſial papers to wit upon names, eſpecially upon the Quakers. He knew man better than he did civil government. He was a friend to human nature, forgiving, upright, and pious. He underſtood the Indians better than any man of the age. He made not ſo many converts, but he made more ſincere friends. He knew their paſſions, and the reſtraints they could endure. He was betrayed into no wild or expenſive projects reſpecting them. He ſtudied their manners and their cuſtoms and paſſions together. His vocabulary alſo proves that he was familiar with the words of their language, if not with its principles. It is an happy relief in contemplating ſo eccentrick a character, that no ſufferings induced any purpoſes of revenge, for which he afterwards had great opportunities; that great ſocial virtues corrected the firſt errours of his opinions; and that he lived to exhibit to the natives a noble example of generous goodneſs, and to be the parent of the independent ſtate of Rhode-

Island. He died in his colony, in 1683, in the 84th year of his age.

ART. 27.

The Sabbath, a poem. The first American edition, to which are now added, Sabbath Walks. New-York, printed by Collins, Perkins, & Co. 1805. 12*mo. pp.* 168.

THIS little poem is written with great simplicity and considerable purity of style, excellencies the more welcome, as the more uncommon in the present degeneracy of taste, when a studied magnificence has driven nature from our prose, and sound without sense characterizes our verse.

This poet, who writes in blank verse, has one peculiarity in his versification, which, from its frequent recurrence, he undoubtedly thinks a beauty, but which strikes us, as in the highest degree harsh and inharmonious. He often employs eleven syllables in a line.

'His iron-armed hoofs gleam in the morning ray.'

'In air, soaring heaven-ward, afar they float.'

'The record of her blossoming age appears.'

The authority of Milton is not sufficient to justify a license of this nature, and from the refinement of modern times, and the improvement of our language, we expect from a poet of the present day, at least, smoothness of versification. He also indulges once in a hemistick, or half-verse.

'Beyond the empyreal.'

Virgil, who died before his Æneid was completed, left many lines unfinished, and this is the only instance, which we have yet found, where an imperfection has been imitated from choice. Dryden indeed adopted the practice from laziness, but succeeding bards never presumed to take the same liberty. With the exception of these trivial faults, which, however, it was incumbent on us as reviewers to point out, we can recommend this poem to every class of readers. It has simplicity enough to be intelligible to the illiterate, and sufficient sentiment and poetry to gratify the learned. As the style of the poet is equable, without any occasional flights above its uniform tenor, we have no choice in selection, and shall therefore quote the first forty lines of the poem, as a specimen of the writer's manner.

How still the morning of the hallowed day!
Mute is the voice of rural labour, hushed
The ploughboy's whistle, and the milkmaid's song.
The scythe lies glittering in the dewy wreath
Of tedded grass, mingled with fading flowers,
That yester morn bloom'd waving in the breeze;
Sounds the most faint attract the ear,—the hum
Of early bee, the trickling of the dew,
The distant bleating, midway up the hill.
Calmness seems thron'd on yon unmoving cloud.
To him who wanders o'er the upland leas,
The blackbird's note comes mellower from the dale;
And sweeter from the sky the gladsome lark
Warbles his heav'n-tun'd song; the lulling brook
Murmurs more gently down the deep-sunk glen;
While from yon lowly roof, whose curling smoke
O'ermounts the mist, is heard, at intervals,
The voice of psalms, the simple song of praise.

With dove-like wings Peace o'er yon village broods:
The dizzying mill-wheel rests; the anvil's din
Hath ceas'd; all, all around is quietness.
Less fearful on this day, the limping hare
Stops, and looks back, and stops, and looks on man,
Her deadliest foe. The toil-worn horse, set free,
Unheedful of the pasture, roams at large;
And, as his stiff unwieldy bulk he rolls,
His iron-arm'd hoofs gleam in the morning ray.

But chiefly Man the day of rest enjoys.
Hail, Sabbath! thee I hail, the poor man's day.
On other days, the man of toil is doom'd
To eat his joyless bread, lonely, the ground
Both seat and board, screen'd from the winter's cold,
And summer's heat, by neighbouring hedge or tree;
But on this day, embosom'd in his home,
He shares the frugal meal with those he loves;
With those he loves he shares the heart-felt joy
Of giving thanks to God,—not thanks of form,
A word and a grimace, but rev'rently,
With cover'd face and upward earnest eye.

What we have said of the Sabbath is equally applicable to the short poems that follow it, entitled Sabbath Walks. A body of notes is subjoined to the whole, chiefly relating to the persecutions formerly experienced by the Scotch presbyterians. As their fanaticks, however, suffered no more than they, or their ancestors under John Knox, had inflicted, whatever sympathy they may excite in Scotland, they cannot expect to inspire much interest here. The character of Bonaparte, drawn with no inconsiderable ability, though in a style, perhaps a little too turgid, will be much more gratifying to the American reader.

The character of Bonaparte will furniſh a ſpecimen of more monſtrous moral deformity, than was ever exhibited in the hiſtorical muſeum. Poſſeſſing the power of conferring on mankind a greater portion of happineſs than ever depended on the will of one man, he has been the author of miſeries incalculable. He could have given liberty to France: he aſſumed abſolute power to himſelf. He could have given peace to Europe: he concluded an inſidious truce. He could have emancipated Switzerland: he rivetted the chains, which the Directory had forged. In St. Domingo, his conduct was a complication of the moſt ſottiſh impolicy, the moſt ſavage cruelty, the moſt knaviſh perfidy, that ever diſgraced the annals of human nature. By this ſelf-created monarch, was Touſſaint, the elected ruler of a free people, ſwindled into a treaty, kidnapped during the peace that ſucceeded, torn from his wife and children, tranſported in irons to France, immured in a dungeon, and, finally, aſſaſſinated, (if uncontradicted accuſation deſerve any credit,) in a mode perfectly ſuitable to the commencement and progreſs of the horrid hiſtory,—poiſon under the diſguiſe of medicine. Yet this maſked murderer this druggiſt-aſſaſſin preſumes to exclaim againſt the the uplifted arm of an Arena or a Georges. His effrontery can only be ſurpaſſed by his hypocriſy. Compared to him, Cromwell was a mere novice in the art.—As to military talents, how infinitely inferiour is he to Moreau! Moreau ſaved, he ſacrificed his ſoldiers. Moreau, deſtitute of reſources, accompliſhed a retreat more ſplendid than the Corſican ſwindler's moſt celebrated victories. Moreau conducted his ſoldiers to their homes: the Corſican deſerted his in a diſtant, hoſtile, peſtilential region.--His ſucceſs in Italy (and there only he was ſucceſsful) was a matter of arithmetical, rather than of military tacticks. In the cauſe of liberty each individual of the French army was ſelf-devoted to death. The Corſican's troops were in his eſtimation, and were in reality, as ſo much *ammunition*. Not a barrel of powder, not a *caiſſon*, was more entirely at his diſpoſal, than were the lives of his men. He had only to calculate, whether he or his adverſary was moſt abundantly ſupplied with this human ammunition. It was a calculation of carnage. He was in truth the chief broker in the vendue-room of victory, and he carried off the beſt lots, by outbidding his competitors in the blood of the ſoldiery.—At laſt, this puny mimick of Charlemagne, bedizened with the motley panegyricks of fawning ſenators, obedient *law-makers*, and aſſenting tribunes, has erected his throne on the yet trembling crater of the revolutionary volcano. From this hollow eminence, his ſelf-filled eye looked upward to his gorgeous canopy of ſtate, but diſcerned not the ſtill more extended canopy of the world's deriſion. Nor could his fancied exaltation be complete, without the actual degradation of the humbled wearer of the Papal tiara, who, by his ſufferance, is ſtill permitted to retain the ſhadow of a mighty name. This miſerable chief of an expiring ſuperſtition, dragged like another conſcript to the Capital of Continental Europe, and drilled to the minutiæ of the coronation manual, has been compelled to place an imperial diadem on that head ſo much more worthy of a Damien's crown. To conſummate the abſurd wickedneſs of the atchievement, the Sabbath, the day *holy of the Lord*, *honourable*, has been proſtituted to this ſacrilegious pantomime. Compared to ſuch things as theſe, the former atheiſm of the Corſican creed-monger was ſanctity itſelf.

ART. 28.

A new Map of the United States of America, including part of Louisisiania. Drawn from the latest authorities. Boston, published and sold by John Sullivan, jun. 1806.

THE science of geography owes its progress to the assistance of maps, as in a less degree history is indebted to painting; for of the senses the eye is the most important, and the objects it embraces in the acquisition of knowledge are most extensive. The ideas received through this medium are generally clear and distinct; the impressions they make are strong and lasting, and seldom require an after operation of the mind to connect or arrange them. It comprehends at once all the proportions, numbers, and divisions of a painting, or piece of architecture; the beauties are equally stamped upon the mind, and time, although it may weaken, can never obliterate the images.

These reflections were suggested by inspecting the new map, lately presented to the American publick, by Mr. John Sullivan, jun. It comprehends, on a sheet of 4 by 4½ feet, the whole of the United States, with part of Louisiana, the Floridas, and part of the British provinces of Canada, and furnishes a very distinct and valuable exposition of the political divisions and boundaries of the states.

To give an exact and comprehensive map of the United States was certainly a great and laudable undertaking, and such as the publick, if well executed, ought to encourage by something more than an affectation of patronage. The small maps in Morse's Gazetteer, the scarcity of Bradley's and the dearness of Arrowsmith's, and the progress of civilization and improvement towards our Western frontiers, rendered the publication of the new map peculiarly interesting.

Gazetteers are serviceable to show with facility the qualities of soil, institutions, population, climates, productions, arts, manners, and customs of different countries; but we must look to maps for their relative situations, and the connexion, that one district or territory has with another, the extent, situation, and direction of rivers, mountains, &c.

In the compilation of a map, made up of different surveys and descriptions of small sections of the country, difficulties and embarrassments occur, which are not obvious to a cursory observer. By diminishing large, and protracting small maps of the several states and territories, and comparing the variable surveys and correcting the anomalies, which are found in them, the publisher is liable to commit many errours, and becomes, in a great measure, answerable for the inaccuracies of his predecessors, whose works he is obliged to join and associate to form an aggregate of the whole. Nor are the materials easily obtained. If he trusts to the numerous small maps in circulation, most of which are extremely defective, his imprudence is inexcusable; and if he looks for assistance to original surveys, he will generally find them incomplete. Nor can an accurate map of the United States be expected, without efficient aid from government. Maps of some of the states have been published by authority; but instead of surveyors being employed to fix the exact position of prominent objects, the bearings of which would correct other surveys, the compiler has been obliged to

collect plans of towns and small districts, and to make a patch-work whole of these discordant materials. Sometimes it would be necessary to bend or straighten a river, to protract or shorten its course ; but this was not considered of much importance, and, to give the whole a pretty appearance, a range of mountains might be easily added for a boundary line. Nor can we blame the compiler for not going to an expense, that our economical governments will not incur. A society in this town was offered the privilege of making and publishing the maps of Massachusetts and Maine, and they would have had the volunteer assistance of many scientifick gentlemen ; but government, by striving to drive too hard a bargain, lost the opportunity of obtaining accurate maps. But we must not expect the encouragement of government to maps, when every seaman complains, that there is not a chart of the extensive shores of New-England, upon which he can rest the safety of his ship.

To give a plain delineation of the several states, as a kind of chart, by which we may study the political ties and interests that unite, or ought to unite us, under a general government, must be the greatest advantage resulting from this map. Accuracy in this respect is required, and not a particular location of small and inconsiderable towns. This, as it is not expected, only endangers the credit of the work ; and here Mr. Sullivan has hazarded much. In Virginia, for instance, and in Massachusetts and other New-England states, the map appears crowded, and the centres of towns are not noted definitively by small circles, as is usually done in good maps. Had he, therefore, paid less attention to this part, and more explicitly marked the post-roads and towns, which are certainly of great consequence, and perhaps coloured them, he would have turned some of his industry to better account.

The meridians and parallels might have been more accurately and truly drawn, and the graver guided by a more skilful hand. The execution should have been under the superintendance of an experienced engraver, rather than, as would seem from its aspect, have been put into the stiff and unpractised hands of an apprentice. It is a pity the valuable labour of two years, spent by the compiler in collecting and arranging so much useful information, should be dressed out with so little taste and skill. The work would have found a more welcome reception, if, in addition to the science of the proprietor, the map had presented a better specimen of the ingenuity and proficiency of American engravers.

The colouring is neat and judicious, and affords at one glance a better knowledge of the boundaries of the several states, than could be gained by months devoted to study. In some parts omissions and inaccuracies occur, which are not, however, unpardonable. Mountains are laid down in different places, with precision and a good relief ; but Monadnock, in New-Hampshire, and Wachusett, in Massachusetts, two great landmarks in New-England, are quite forgotten ; they are not noticed on the map. As longitude is sometimes reckoned from London or Greenwich, and sometimes from Paris, notice ought always to be given, from what meridian we are to count ; but, as the degrees are marked on this map without a reference to the first meridian, we

hope a new edition will be supplied, at top or bottom, with "*Longitude West from London.*"

When many sheets are to be joined to form a large map, much care and practice are requisite to make the various lines meet,& unite them correctly. The "New Map of the United States" furnishes evidence, either of the difficulty of this part of the work, or the carelessness of the workmen.

We have examined the longitude and latitude of many places, and, from the inquiries we have made, the map is as accurate as can be expected. It would be ungrateful to demand a minute attention to towns and small districts, when the whole Union on so small a sheet is pendent on the walls of our counting-rooms and studies. The post-roads are laid out with exactness, though indistinctly, and the great rivers of North-America pursue their sinuous courses and empty their mighty waters, where nature has commanded. The Mississippi, Mobile, Missouri, Illinois, and Ohio, all have their proper range, and, with Mr. Sullivan's efforts, proclaim the value and richness of countries yet untrodden beyond the Appalachian mountains, countries unequalled for agricultural and inland commercial advantages. That section, comprizing Louisiana, is almost a blank; and such for many years will probably be every accurate representation of that country.

Two very valuable tables are placed upon the map. The first shews the number and names of ports of entry in the United States; those being particularly designated, which are such for vessels from and beyond the Cape of Good Hope. The second contains the length and breadth of all the States, with their chief towns, their distance from the city of Washington, and an estimate of the population of the Union.

Notwithstanding its imperfections, the new map claims the attention of the publick. It furnishes all the knowledge, which a work of the kind is intended to convey, and perhaps is as accurate as any map of the United States yet published, and may be procured at comparatively small expense.

ACCOUNT OF THE TOTAL ECLIPSE OF THE SUN,

JUNE 16TH, 1806.

A TOTAL eclipſe of the ſun is a rare and intereſting occurrence. In May, 1706, there was one obſerved in Switzerland and in the ſouthern parts of France. On the 22d of April, 1715, the ſun was totally eclipſed at London. Accounts of both thoſe eclipſes were publiſhed in the tranſactions of the Royal Society. The laſt was obſerved by Dr. Halley, who remarks, that there had not before been ſeen a total eclipſe of the ſun at London, ſince the 20th March, 1140. "Having found," ſays Dr. Halley, "by comparing what had been formerly obſerved of ſolar eclipſes, that the whole ſhadow would fall upon England, I thought it a very proper opportunity to get the dimenſions of the ſhade aſcertained by obſervation, and accordingly I cauſed a ſmall map of England, deſcribing the track and bounds thereof, to be diſperſed all over the kingdom, with a requeſt to the curious to obſerve what they could about it, but more eſpecially to note the time of continuance of total darkneſs." It is to be regretted, that ſome ſuch method had not been adopted in this country, previous to the remarkable eclipſe which we have recently witneſſed. We hope we ſhall be pardoned, when we remark, that our *Savans* appear to have been ſomewhat remiſs in omitting to invite and direct the publick attention on this intereſting oc-

caſion. At the ſame time we muſt expreſs our acknowledgments to the ingenious author of a pamphlet, which, to the extent of its circulation, in a great degree accompliſhed the deſired purpoſe. It was written, we underſtand, by Mr. ANDREW NEWELL, a young printer of Boſton, whoſe predilection for aſtronomical ſtudies has prompted him to aſſiduous application to that ſublime branch of ſcience, and whoſe advances therein are ſaid to be reſpectable.

A number of gentlemen in Boſton, who had furniſhed themſelves with proper inſtruments, agreed to meet on the morning of the 16th at the houſe of Mr. Benjamin Buſſey, in Summer ſtreet, for the purpoſe of obſerving the eclipſe. Their obſervations, as communicated by their committee of arrangements, are as follow.

"Our obſervations were made in Mr. Buſſey's garden with three achromatick teleſcopes, which we ſhall diſtinguiſh by the numbers 1, 2, 3. No. 1 magnified about 45 times; No. 2 was furniſhed with a double object glaſs, and magnified about 70 times; the magnifying power of No. 3 was ſmall, but it gave a clear and diſtinct viſion. The time was determined by an excellent watch with a ſecond hand. Obſervations of correſponding altitudes for adjuſting our time were omitted. Suitable inſtruments on which we could rely were not readily to be obtained, and it was not found convenient to pay the requiſite attention, without which ſuch obſervations would have been nugatory or deluſive. We therefore determined to conſider Preſident Webber's clock, at Cambridge, as our ſtandard, and to compare our watch with it immediately after our obſervations ſhould be finiſhed.

The gentlemen at teleſcopes No. 1 and 2 were placed near to each other. Their obſervations correſponded, excepting as reſpects the end of the eclipſe.

By teleſcope No. 1 and 2:—	
Beginning,	10h. 3′ 21″
Beginning of total obſcuration of the ſun,	11. 22′ 31″,
End of the ſame,	11. 27′ 09′
End of eclipſe by No. 1,	12. 48′ 01″
Ditto, by No. 2,	12. 47′ 59″
Obſervations with teleſcope, No. 3:—	
Beginning,	10h. 3′ 20″
Beginning of total darkneſs,	11. 22′ 40″
End of the ſame,	11. 27′ 08″
End of the eclipſe,	12. 48′ 07″

The duration of total darkneſs, according to two of the obſervers, was 4′ 38″. By the other, 4′ 28″. Two other gentlemen alſo noted the time of total obſcuration, as nearly as they could by their watches, and both pronounced it to be upwards of 4 minutes.

The duration of the eclipſe, was, by

No. 1,	2h. 44′ 40″.
No. 2,	2. 44′ 38″.
No. 3,	2. 44′ 47″.

Mean duration, by the three obſervations, 2h. 44′ 41⅔″.

The watch was found to be 14″ ſlower than Preſident Webber's clock, with which it was compared in the afternoon. Adding 14″ to each of our obſervations, they may be conſidered as having been made by the clock uſed by the Preſident; allowance ſhould be made however for the ſmall difference of longitude between Boſton and Cambridge, and for the poſſible variation in the rate of going of the watch, between the time of our obſervations and the compariſon made with the clock at Cambridge. The Preſident has not yet finiſhed his obſervations for the correction of his clock. When they ſhall be completed, and, together with his obſervations on the eclipſe, ſhall be communicated, the uſe and value of our obſervations will be better determined.

In this vicinity, and probably throughout New-England, this intereſting phenomenon was obſerved under very favourable circumſtances. The day was remarkably fine. Not a cloud obſcured any portion of the hemiſphere. The air was dry and clear, and the heavens, before the obſcurations, were in a robe of brighteſt azure. The wind was northweſt in the morning, but ſhifted to northeaſt after the eclipſe commenced, and continued eaſterly until its completion. The thermometer, expoſed to the open air, in the ſhade, on a north wall, fell eleven degrees. No dew fell. This was aſcertained by placing on a board a piece of ſoft paper, twelve inches ſquare, which was accurately weighed before the commencement of the eclipſe and immediately after the emerſion of the ſun. No difference in the weight was perceived. There was a ſenſible chilline ſs, however, in the air, and ſome of the company found an outſide garment very comfortable. The mercury in the barometer ſtood at 30,2 from 8 o'clock, until 2 in P. M.

Venus appeared in the ſouth-weſt, about 15 minutes before the total obſcuration, and was viſible more than 20

minutes after the appearance of light. Our ſituation was not favourable for noticing the ſtars. From a compariſon of the accounts of different perſons in our circle, with reference to a celeſtial globe, it appeared that Aldebaran, Capella, Caſtor, Procyon, and two of the ſtars in Orion were noticed.

A little before the total obſcuration, a deep dark ſhade, reſembling an approaching thunder ſtorm, was obſerved at the weſtward. As the eclipſe went off, a ſimilar appearance was noticed on the eaſtern ſide of the horizon. The departing light of the ſun was ſupportable to the naked eye. It was otherwiſe with the firſt returning light, which was extremely vivid and inexpreſſibly rapid in its acceſs. The portion of the ſun which firſt re-appeared, was, to the naked eye, of a globular form, and ſeemed like a ball of fire.

A luminous ring ſurrounded the moon after the ſun was totally hid. From the accounts given of former total eclipſes of the ſun, this appearance was expected; but in brilliancy and magnitude it ſeems to have exceeded any of which we find an account. In the eclipſe of 1715, abovementioned, Dr. Halley computes the luminous ring to be about "a digit, or perhaps a tenth part of the moon's diameter." We were not prepared to meaſure the breadth of the ring, that appeared at this time, but ſhould judge it to be at leaſt double the dimenſions of that recorded by Dr. Halley. The light was of a pale white, and the ring was, externally, irregular. Vivid corruſcations, of a reddiſh or purple colour, were ſeen with the glaſſes, proceeding from the moon's edge. One of our company, at one moment, counted ſix of theſe lucid pencils, iſſuing from different parts of the orb of the moon, at irregular diſtances, and with ſmaller illuminated points between them, in form and diſpoſition reſembling the points on the card of a common compaſs. The darkneſs was not ſo great as expected. It was found neceſſary however to make uſe of a lanthern to aſcertain the time preciſely by our watch. If we were to judge from the number of ſtars that appeared, the light muſt have been greater, than at the time of full moon; this light, however, did not wholly proceed from the luminous ring above mentioned, which though bright, and exhibiting a ſtrong contraſt to the dark body of the moon, which it incloſed, did not caſt any ſenſible ſhadow. A crepuſcular brightneſs appeared all around, in the lower parts of the hemiſphere, at the time of total obſcuration of the ſun. Dr. Halley notices a ſimilar brightneſs round the horizon in the eclipſe of 1715, and gives a ſatisfactory explanation of it. "So much of the ſegment of our atmoſphere," he obſerves, "as was above the horizon, and was without the cone of the moon's ſhadow, was more or leſs enlightened by the ſun's beams, and its reflection gave a diffuſe light, which made the air ſeem hazy, and hindered the appearance of the ſtars." This brightneſs he remarked as more diſtinguiſhable in the ſouth-eaſt. The ſame remark was made here, by thoſe, moſt favourably ſituated to notice this appearance.

During the total obſcuration, ſome of the company remarked, that the moon, with its ſurrounding glory, appeared nearer to the eye, than the ſun or moon uſually appear. The exhibition was wonderfully magnificent and ſublime, and inſpired one univerſal ſentiment of admiration and awe, which we ſhall not attempt to deſcribe. We ſeemed to be in the more immediate preſence of Deity, while this intereſting ſpectacle was exhibiting in his auguſt temple. The morning was uſhered in with the uſual hum of buſineſs, which gradually diminiſhed as the darkneſs advanced. One uninterrupted ſilence at length prevailed. A freſh breeze, which had prevailed, now ſubſided, and all was calm; the birds retired to reſt; the rolling chariot and the rumbling car were no more heard; the axe and the hammer were ſuſpended. Returning light reanimated the face of things. We ſeemed as in the dawn of creation, when God ſaid *let there be light, and there was light*, and an involuntary cheer of gratulation burſt from the ſpectators, eſpecially the youthful groups in the ſtreets, and on the ſurrounding hills.

The committee, in purſuance of their commiſſion, proceed to report ſome particulars, that eſcaped their perſonal obſervation. The cows on the common, we are told, diſcovered ſenſible marks of agitation--ſome of them left the ground and proceeded homeward, the reſt gathered round a perſon, who was croſſing the common at the time, and followed him with apparent anxiety, as if ſoliciting protection.

We have heard, from ſeveral perſons,

a remark, of a ſingular appearance in the ſhade of trees. The figures of numerous little creſcents were obſerved in many places. We firſt heard them mentioned by ſome gentlemen in the government of the College, who aſſiſted Preſident Webber in his obſervations at Cambridge. The ſame thing was obſerved by ſeveral perſons in this town in yards and gardens, and in the mall. A gentleman at Plymouth, with whoſe letter we are favoured, remarks a ſimilar appearance there. They were called by ſome, the ſhadows of the leaves. This ſeems to be incorrect. They appeared as lucid ſpots, of a faint, white light, and their direction and figure varied with the different phaſes of the eclipſe. It has been ſuggeſted, that they were the image of the ſun, produced by its rays, ſhining through the interſtices of the leaves, on the principle of the Camera Obſcura. This explanation and appears ſatisfactory, and from the beſt accounts we can procure of the direction, they exhibited an inverted image of the ſun, as they ſhould do if produced on the principle above mentioned. It has been aſked indeed, if this ſolution be correct, why does not the entire image of the ſun appear in ſimilar ſituations to daily obſervation? The fact is, that it does thus appear, though it may not have been obſerved, of which any perſon may be ſatisfied, who will examine the ſhade of trees, on a ſmooth ſurface, when the ſun is near the meridian. Faint light ſpots, of a circular form, are very perceptible. They were ſtronger and more diſtinct during the eclipſe, from the deep ſurrounding ſhade. Several perſons have remarked the diſtinct and well-defined ſhade of objects, when the ſun was nearly obſcured. It ſeemed to them that a profile might be taken as perfectly as from a ſhade thrown on a wall by means of a lamp. We do not find, however, that this appearance under the leaves of trees has been before noticed on ſimilar occaſions.

We wiſh for further obſervations on this ſubject, and that other explanations may be offered, if what is here ſuggeſted be not ſatisfactory.

We have taken ſome pains to collect accounts from other places of obſervations on this remarkable eclipſe. We were particularly deſirous of aſcertaining the northern and ſouthern limits of the ſhadow. At Newport, Nantucket, and Martha's Vineyard, the eclipſe, we are informed, was not total: but it was total at New-Bedford, at Rocheſter, at Wareham, and at Falmouth, on the northern ſide of the Vineyard ſound. It was not total at Portland, nor at Biddeford; but it was ſo at Kennebunk, between Biddeford and Portſmouth. If this information be correct, the breadth of the ſhadow was about 120 miles, and enveloped the entire territory of Maſſachuſetts *proper*, excepting Martha's Vineyard and Nantucket.

Some perſons, who were on the water in the harbour, noticed, during the total obſcuration, particles of congealed miſt, reſembling ſnow, flitting through the air. The ſame appearance is ſaid to have been noticed at Glouceſter, on Cape Ann, but we have no accurate information on the ſubject. At Plymouth, the fiſhermen in the bay obſerved the luminous appearance of the ſpray of the ſea, which is frequently apparent in the night on the ocean. Dr. Halley intimates ſome appearances of alarm among the *fiſh*, during the eclipſe of 1715. We have not heard any ſimilar remark at this time.

No ſpots were ſeen upon the face of the ſun. The luminous drops, which are mentioned by many aſtronomers as very apparent in former eclipſes when the ſun is reduced to a ſmall thread of light, were noticed by ſome obſervers; by others they were not ſeen. Some ſmall inequalities were obſerved, by ſome of our company, on the lower edge of the moon; but they could not be perceived by others. Some perſons have remarked, that the luminous ring round the moon, at the time of total obſcuration of the ſun, was ſmaller and of a fainter light on the upper ſide, than on any other part of her circumference.

Some further particulars, which we have not leiſure at preſent to digeſt, may be the ſubject of a future communication."

Boſton, June 30th.

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Sunt bona, ſunt quædam mediocria, ſunt mala plura.—MART.

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☞ ERRATUM. In page 291, first column, 6 line from bottom for paſſions read paſſion.

EDITORS' NOTES.

Our present number is enriched with a production from the pen of the Hon. J. Q. Adams. By making use of the Anthology for enchasing the jewel, he has conferred an honour, of which we are not insensible, and a compliment of which we are proud. If the Professor of Rhetorick, in his new rambles through poetry and prose, should note any thing of "pleasant aspect" for the general view, we should be happy in displaying it for publick applause. We wish him complete success in his present literary exertions; and though, for each course of his lectures, he will not receive the splendid Didactron of Isocrates, a thousand minæ, yet we trust, that his discourses will be such, as Quintilian might praise, and that the consequent renown will fully compensate the scanty pecuniary emolument of the new professorship.

Many subscribers to the American edition of Rees's Cyclopædia have expressed in strong terms their disapprobation of the mutilated state in which several articles are exhibited. We shall not give, at present, any opinion respecting the extent of these mutilations; though, from the respectability of the complainants, we are afraid they are important. Should this appear to be the case, we have no hesitation in asserting, that such conduct is altogether unjustifiable. Let the American editors *add* what they think useful or important, provided they be careful to distinguish what they insert, from that which rests upon the authority of the learned and laborious Dr. Rees; but let us have no garblings, no mutilations, no index expurgatorius. The work in question is of the most respectable class. Upwards of forty of the first literary men in Great Britain and Ireland are engaged to furnish the various articles; and the whole is under the superintendence of an editor, who has already proved himself fully equal to the task. That any men should venture to *alter* such a work would argue no little hardihood, and he would more probably incur the suspicion of overweening confidence, than inspire a belief in his capacity to improve the publication. But that this should be done by *anonymous* criticks, of whose character for judgment and talents the world knows nothing, is an impertinence, for which we cannot find a name. It transfers the weighty responsibility of the work from those, who are able to sustain it, to the shoulders of a Mr. Nobody, whom we have neither seen nor heard. We hesitate not to say, that the *whole* of the Cyclopædia, as edited by Dr. Rees, ought to be given to the subscribers. The American publishers have an undoubted right to add, to explain, to correct an error, or insert a caution, within the limitation we have mentioned; but this right does not extend to mutilation or omission, which has a tendency to confound all literary authority, and to render the ground we tread upon uncertain and unsure. We desire to be understood, not as giving a decided opinion how far this has been done in the work referred to; but are the more earnest in our expressions, because the practice has been shamefully prevalent in American re-publications; so much so that no literary man is safe in depending upon many of them, as giving the ungarbled and unsophisticated sense of the original author. With respect to the work in question, we hope to give it, in a future number, a thorough examination, and to administer strict justice between the editors and the publick.